

# **CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT**

# CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Theory and Skill Training

MLSU - CENTRAL LIBRARY



66874CL

***LOIS V. JOHNSON***

*California State College, Los Angeles*

***MARY A. BANY***

*California State College, Los Angeles*

The Macmillan Company  
Collier-Macmillan Limited, London

Copyright © 1970, *The Macmillan Company*

Printed in the United States of America

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the Publisher.

The Macmillan Company  
866 Third Avenue, New York, New York 10022

Collier-Macmillan Canada, Ltd., Toronto, Ontario

Library of Congress catalog card number: 77-99115

First Printing

U. U. CENT. LIB.

## PREFACE

In this age of revolution, all people who are concerned with elementary education are seeking new and different ways of working with children in the classroom. New procedures must evolve—not from the reaffirmation of old and entrenched concepts but from an emergence of new ones. Attempts to improve standards by increasing the amount or upgrading the quality of teaching have proven disappointing in achieving results in children's learning. The *"more of the same thing"* and *"do better what is done anyway"* approaches have been tried and found wanting. Because old methods have been generally abortive, the need to improve still exists and calls for a fresh conception—an implementation in the classroom that will establish better conditions for learning.

Because of the importance of classroom management procedures to instructional practices, the attempt here is to develop more systematic and dynamic ways in which to understand, describe, and explain the individual and the collective behavior of children in a classroom organization. This book concentrates upon improving teachers' effectiveness in the management dimension of teaching. To understand only the behavior of individuals is not enough. It is necessary to understand the collective behavior of children in the classroom group, as well as the factors that influence this behavior.

It is possible for children to like school far more than they do. They may not like all of the learning activities and assigned tasks, but they can enjoy working together and can do so more productively than many of them do at present. Some adults' reactions to school indicate that their own school experiences had enough dissatisfaction, unpleasantness, and conflict to have produced a degree, at least, of resentment and dislike. This unfavorable reaction to school has had harmful consequences for children and for the school as an organization. Important studies by behavior scientists in recent years have provided some practical insights into why it is that many children do not like school. This research has focused on new methods of increasing organizational effectiveness and improving processes of interaction in the classroom.

This book advances a theoretical understanding and focuses on the



development of teacher skills and patterns of classroom management activities. The instructional aspects of teaching (i.e., the curriculum content and subject matter skills) are discussed only in relation to the management of classrooms or problem situations. Parenthetically, the instructional aspect of teaching is of unquestioned importance and has been given voluminous and varied treatment elsewhere. Education has, without doubt, given greater emphasis to meeting cognitive goals than to guiding emotional development. The theory and skills in this book are affectively and humanly oriented.

Teachers are necessarily involved in a whole series of human interactions essential to carrying out organized learning activities effectively. A teacher who has developed skills based on adequate theory can capitalize on the emotional component in human interaction to achieve the best interests of the child and the classroom group.

The content of this book covers a limited area, that of classroom management. It can be argued, however, that classroom management embraces the most important acts that teachers perform. As a prerequisite, these acts determine the conditions under which children learn curricular material and skills. The teacher's managerial ability is related to the student's view of his school work and to his acceptance of it, his motivations, his aspirations, the quality of his interpersonal relations, and his feelings of satisfaction and accomplishment. Classroom management is more important than the usual scheduled lesson or the planned learning activity and on a par with the processes of teaching and learning. Heretofore classroom management has been subject to misunderstanding and trivial exposition.

One purpose of this book is to present an action-based training program which will enable teachers to cope effectively with classroom management problems. It will serve preservice and experienced teachers by preparing them for situations that they will encounter or that they now face daily. The book is organized to develop both conceptual and operational skills and to provide a means for improving skill competence in classroom management by means of incident-simulation training.

The skill training uses incident simulation, which is a process whereby individuals singly or in small groups meet a situation as it happens. The incidents, which are described by teachers, actually occurred. In simulation teachers plan for immediate and long-range action; they practice to improve their communication skills and group-decision and problem-solving procedures. At the beginning of training, incidents are analyzed for the teachers. Later in the program teachers are provided with opportunities to diagnose the children's behavior and to plan appropriate managerial action.

From teaching and consulting experience, from observation in classrooms, and from a long period of study, a number of concepts have been extracted that explain what happens in classrooms where management problems occur. The intention is to do more than just describe what

happens in various problem situations. The book seeks to explain the situations and so make it possible for teachers to predict and control the recurring patterns of classroom behavior presently labeled as discipline or behavior problems.

Because the classroom organization has not been subject to a significant number of controlled or empirical studies, insufficient attention has been paid to identifying its components of behavior. Substantial and definitive research is needed into the collective actions of children in classrooms. Classroom management often has been examined or discussed in ambiguous and elusive terms such as classroom climate, democratic leadership, or discipline and the problem child. To provide the specificity needed in the field, we have selected and related some basic concepts which we then apply to understanding commonly observed classroom behavior and to the associated patterns of teacher activity. One sign of understanding is the ability to observe and state given conditions and behavior. A more rigorous criterion is the ability to state the conditions under which specific behavior can be predicted. The teacher who knows the conditions under which the behavior occurred and is able to predict it is in a strategic position to make changes and modifications. Such understanding plus an effective teaching personality are still inadequate; a teaching performance incorporating skills must be added.

It has been gratifying to find that teachers repeatedly react favorably to analysis and to incident-simulation training. This scheme enables them to gain skill without having to practice on children before their techniques are fully developed. Most teachers feel that the incidents are consistent with real classroom behavior, and, more important, that the explanations enable them to interpret behavior that they face daily in their classrooms. Some go so far as to say that these training periods are the most helpful they have experienced in their teacher-education studies.

These responses are not cited to validate the conceptual scheme and the training model, but to support the contention that the utilization of incident-simulation exercises puts theory into practice with greater success than do traditional concepts and the usual teacher-training procedures.

It should be noted that the managerial concepts apply most fully to the classroom system rather than to the total school organization. Examples are given of the organizational policies with which teachers and children must comply. Some of these are sources of problem behavior, and they are to be dealt with at the classroom level rather than at the level of the total school or the school system.

As the beginning teacher is expected to perform at increasingly higher levels of proficiency in his first teaching positions, the professional school of education must teach the prospective teacher to think like a teacher and to develop concepts of teaching that will continue to unfold through-

out his career. To these ends we have included the training exercises.

Participation in these exercises will introduce the novice to many classroom problems as viewed by more experienced teachers and will prepare him to integrate theory and skilled performance into his teaching.

There is now so much to learn about teaching that in the time available colleges and universities cannot completely prepare the prospective teacher. The continuing education of the career teacher is a need of which we are aware. The experienced teacher may deepen his understanding and extend his skills by using the training exercises and working with colleagues in a group situation or by studying alone.

In addition to attempting to put theory into practice in an area that has received little attention from educators, we hope to present the sometimes pejorative word management as a dynamic concept.

Grateful acknowledgment is made to the many teachers who have shared with us their experiences in classes, workshops, and projects. The candor with which they have recognized and reported the behavior and problems of their classes was invaluable. For the stimulus of their ideas and the encouragement of their continuing and innovative use of the theory and skills of good classroom management, we are deeply appreciative.

L. V. J.  
M. A. B.

Los Angeles

# CONTENTS

## SECTION I: THEORY OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Introduction to Section I	3
1. New Ways of Perceiving and Thinking	6
2. An Operational Concept of Classroom Management	42
3. Dynamics of Organizational Behavior in the Classroom Setting	77

## SECTION II: SKILL TRAINING FOR FACILITATION

Introduction to Section II	129
4. Achieving Unity and Cooperation	137
5. Establishing Standards and Coordinating Work Procedures	177
6. Using Problem-Solving to Improve Conditions	222
7. Changing Established Patterns of Group Behavior	261

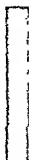
## SECTION III: SKILL TRAINING FOR MAINTENANCE

Introduction to Section III	315
8. Maintaining and Restoring Morale	321
9. Handling Conflict	362
10. Minimizing Management Problems	401

REFERENCES	436
------------	-----

INDEX	447
-------	-----

**SECTION**



**Theory of  
Classroom  
Management**

**NEW WAYS  
OF PERCEIVING  
AND THINKING**

**AN OPERATIONAL  
CONCEPT OF  
CLASSROOM  
MANAGEMENT**

**DYNAMICS OF  
ORGANIZATIONAL  
BEHAVIOR  
IN THE  
CLASSROOM  
SETTING**

# INTRODUCTION TO SECTION



## THEORY

The art of classroom management is an integral and primary part of the teaching transaction. It is based upon current knowledge of the dynamics and interpersonal relations within classroom and school groups.

A theoretical framework incorporating, in brief, the teaching-management acts and the social psychology of groups is needed for professional progress. Although controlled and empirical research, which is the foundation of a theory, is rapidly accumulating, it is still incomplete. The theory of classroom management conceived in this section and throughout the book is developed explicitly and implicitly. Attention has been given to achieving consistency, and the reader is encouraged to react with personal initiative in cognitive and effective ways, and to make related applications.

In accordance with the theory, the management tasks are seen as those highly skilled actions of the teacher based upon understanding the nature of groups and the forces that operate in them, on the ability to perceive and diagnose classroom situations, and the ability to behave selectively and creatively to improve conditions.

This redefinition emphasizes classroom management as a means to develop cooperation and a dynamic, nonstatic stabilization. Teachers, while carrying out the learning activities, must maintain a pattern of equilibrium in the classroom group in the face of disruptions, disturbances, and numerous other changes in the environmental situation which affect the work processes.

The pattern of teacher activities must change to meet each new challenge. Whatever the reason for the interruption of the daily program, teacher effectiveness in performing the management aspect of the teacher's job is determined by an accurate assessment of the problem

and a knowledge of needed stabilizing actions. If the frequency of occurrence of incidents causing interruptions in classroom work increases, or if the performance of the management tasks continues to take a large amount of teacher time, management skills need attention and change.

Basic concepts in a useful theoretical framework indicate the place of the individual, the group, the school, and the environmental factors which influence these components. Also included as essential concepts are the nature of the classroom group; the individual's roles and motivations in group settings; the common properties of organized work groups; adaptations and adjustments that occur in collective behavior; and the view of management as a specific dimension of the teaching act.

The scope of the management area of teaching is such that if it is not well handled, teachers are unable to perform effectively in instructional or other areas of teaching responsibility. The management aspect includes the establishing and maintaining of an environment that is conducive to the best development of individual potential, one that enables class groups to work together so that they progress effectively toward educational goals. To perform well in this dimension of teaching, teachers need to know the factors involved. An analysis of commonly occurring problem behavior is a way to determine the aspects of the job.

Analysis of the common classroom problems also clarifies the sources of difficulties and develops an understanding of why children behave as they do in an organized group such as a classroom. Distinguishing characteristics of the major classifications of problems and accompanying descriptions and explanations are given.

Facilitative tasks and maintenance tasks are the two major classroom management functions derived from the problem analysis.

Facilitative tasks refer to those patterns of teacher activities which assist the group in working out shared objectives, in building internal group unity, and in gaining cooperation for meeting organizational needs and objectives. The facilitative acts teachers perform are those which organize the efforts of individuals in the group so that they are able and willing to work well together in the classroom situation. These facilitative acts assist the group in attaining the subjective goals, which arise from the personal needs of the individuals, and the goals of the group itself. These facilitative acts are needed by individuals, and by the group as a group, so that members can achieve and put forth their best efforts.

In an effort to pin down in precise terms what patterns of activities teachers must perform to facilitate the group and stimulate personal development, the kinds of problems assessed were those that teachers identified as commonly occurring in classrooms. From a study of these problems it was determined that the facilitative acts needed in the classroom situation were as follows:

1. Achieving unity of effort.
2. Establishing cooperative behavior standards.

3. Agreeing upon work procedures.
4. Modifying conditions in the classroom system.

Whenever people work together in face-to-face situations, disagreements and conflicts will arise, morale will fluctuate, and environment changes will cause or aggravate problems. Helping the classroom system to make continuing adjustments is part of the management function. The nature of maintenance activities is in handling of conflict, restoring morale, and helping groups to adapt to the effects of a variety of environmental changes.

Three components are used to examine the dynamics of organizational behavior in the classroom. The first is the individual. A distinction is made between the individual with problems of a severe emotional and personal nature, and individual problem behavior primarily engendered by conditions within the class. Group effects that produce or have related individual problem behavior are examined and illustrated with teacher-written incidents. The behavioral effects include those of individuals who are submissive and dependent, apathetic and fearful, aggressive and hostile, and others.

One of the most influential and important groups in the life of a child is his classroom group. The child's affective needs and development, as well as learning and personality needs, are satisfied to a greater or lesser degree by the class group and its activities. The meaning of group for this purpose is defined and its forces considered. The basic variables considered include: unity; interaction and communication (with special attention to the teacher's communication processes); structure; and goals. These properties function interdependently and, because they are affected by many factors in each situation, produce infinite and highly variable numbers of group climates.

How and why a particular group behaves as it does cannot be understood from a statement of properties and characteristics. There is no easy and quick way to form an adequate conception of a group and the dynamics of its behavior. However, understanding properties and the forces they exert in groups is essential to a beginning.

Once a group has established standards for behavior, attempts to change them may be resisted. If the ways of behaving are firmly established the forces that operate in the group will block the change-efforts. Although teachers or leaders may exert pressure to gain control, skillful practices are required to effect lasting changes in behavior. The relevance of the change to the group needs requires increasing the attractiveness of the group to the members. Communication practices may exert force to resist change, or may be used to achieve it.

The organization of the school exerts pressure on the class and its corresponding organization and behavior. The art of classroom management requires that teachers think in terms of individuals, the classroom group, the school organization, and all of their relationships. Each is a part of a total social system and, although related, is also a separate entity.



# 1

## NEW WAYS OF PERCEIVING AND THINKING

### INTRODUCTION

Classroom management has been a neglected concern in education when compared with recent innovations in curriculum and instruction. The lack of development in the area of classroom management has been the result of several factors, including: inability to deal with the concept of children's behavior in a classroom organization, the lack of conceptual tools, and the inclusion of this area as a part of instructional practice.

Rather than the usual idea of classroom management, meaning the preserving or maintaining of order, classroom management is conceptualized as a process requiring the selection and use of means appropriate to the nature of the management problem and the situation. Teacher-management activities include establishing, maintaining, and restoring the system or organization. In an effective classroom organization, individuals are enabled to apply their abilities, talents, and energies to educational tasks.

The teaching transaction consists of two patterns of activities—instructional and managerial. The former are already well detailed and oriented primarily toward individuals. The management activities are primarily group oriented. The newer concept developed here is of practices that create conditions in which individuals can achieve their goals and best development in a group marked by integration, unity, and cooperation.

The unsettled and changing conditions in schools make very timely the functional or operational conception of classroom management.

A formal organization, such as a classroom, has certain requirements in order to keep it functioning. Ignoring these requirements and putting complete reliance on plans, devices, and materials which make for good instruction will result in individual actions—often considered disruptive and undesirable—in order to achieve satisfaction. Among the well-known approaches for developing a basis for instruction are those that are child centered: group climate and self-discipline.

Understanding the effects of an organization upon individuals and the ability to deal with collective behavior (important keys to teacher effectiveness), are points stressed in this presentation. Practices advocated are those which are more scientifically founded than is presently the case.

The meaning of *skill*, as used here, is the developing of conceptual skills and the ability to translate the concepts into action in the classroom. Children will solve individual and group problems intelligently if conditions foster this behavior. An important part of the teacher's work is to create the appropriate conditions.

For over a quarter of a century educators have been aware that the quality of classroom management is important to pupil achievement and to teaching success. Although the organization of children into classes and groupings for the attainment of educational objectives is ages old, a science of managing these organized groupings has not been developed. In fact, in recent years efforts to describe and analyze the task of classroom management have lagged far behind revolutionary improvements in curriculum and instruction. There are several reasons why education has not taken an operational approach to the management area of teacher functioning and has not trained teachers in management skills.

A major reason for neglecting management is education's inability to deal with the fact of children's behavior in the classroom organization and with the psychological character of these groupings. Another reason is that past approaches have been limited by a lack of adequate conceptual tools. This has resulted in a number of dissimilar approaches to the topic. For example, the phrase *classroom management* is conceived in various ways. Some think of classroom management as just another way of describing *classroom discipline*. To some, it arouses a negative reaction, particularly if it evokes an image of a classroom teacher manipulating a group of children. Others may reject the phrase because they believe it represents a concept that conflicts with the "establishing a good environment" or "creating a favorable climate" approach. Still others may think of classroom management as the skillful handling of materials, supplies, and seating arrangements; they do not relate *people* with management. Then there are those who think of management as handling each individual separately rather than coordinating the activities of children in the class groupings, and handling problems that arise because of the characteristics of the organization.

A third reason why education has not described and analyzed the job of managing the classroom group is because of a tendency to treat this area of teaching as part of the instructional practice dependent upon the personal-skill aspect of individual teachers. This "skill" implies intuition, sensitivity, feeling, understanding—not professional training. There are persons who think problems occurring in the class organization are the result of poorly organ-

ized and prepared lessons, and lack of personal skill on the part of the teacher. Finally, some consider the problems and demands of organizational life unimportant and unfortunate because they delay instruction, the major assignment of teachers. In other words, effective teaching does not include dealing with pressures and problems arising in the classroom organization. If problems interrupt instruction and learning, they are to be dealt with kindly, firmly, but with dispatch so that instruction is not delayed.

A new concept of classroom management is needed before conceptual and operational skills can be developed and teachers trained to deal with management problems. It is one thing to state that a new way of thinking is essential; it is quite another matter to assume that by making such a statement, and by describing a different concept of classroom management, a change in thinking will occur. Dominant traditional ways of viewing situations exert a strong influence on the way people think. Since most prospective teachers have been in classrooms for a good part of their early lives, this experience influences their perception of the process, including the management aspect. It is difficult to change these perspectives. When ideas are placed in a new organizational framework, the tendency remains for individuals to remember their past experiences and to refer new ideas to the dominant picture they hold; this often causes them to resist new perceptions and new ways of thinking. However, the degree of resistance varies widely.

It is hypothesized that because of their long experience as pupils in elementary, high school, and college classrooms, educating prospective teachers for teaching is a re-education process. The process of re-education involves creating conditions under which people can be influenced or helped to accept new ideas and to cast off old ways of perceiving and thinking. Effecting a change in ways of perceiving and thinking has been the object of systematic, organized study for the last two decades. Insofar as it is possible, the findings of research relevant to communicating a new line of thought are incorporated within the chapter organization. Not only is the present chapter developed according to what is presently known regarding changing from an old to a new point of view, but an attempt has been made to employ these same principles throughout various sections of the book.

This chapter has to do with breaking away from traditional, self-perpetuating ways of viewing the management dimension of teaching. An effort is made to generate new ways of looking at and thinking about management tasks and the patterns of teacher activity that are involved. When management problems occur, the methods and solutions employed affect both individual development and group inter-relationships. The way the problems are

viewed and how the situation is perceived determines the actions the teacher will take. These actions make a great deal of difference in terms of solutions and outcomes, and the effects on the total teaching transaction.

Chapter 1 discusses the nature of classroom management and how it relates to the total teaching act. Any attempt to develop new perceptions and to formulate a new conceptual framework for viewing the job of classroom management must take as its point of departure the present-day conception of classroom management. Therefore, present approaches and practices are examined briefly. A different way of looking at the task of classroom management is presented so that teachers can gain new perceptions and, hopefully, be helped in integrating this aspect of the teaching job into the total teaching transaction. Lastly, in this chapter the stage is set for developing a theoretical frame of reference (to aid in diagnosis, prediction, and control) which is developed in greater detail in the chapters which follow.

## THE MEANING OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

What is classroom management? Classroom management can be described as the process of organizing and coordinating the willing efforts of children to achieve their own and educational objectives. The process requires selecting and using the means appropriate to the nature of the management problem and the situation in which it occurs. This is not the way classroom management is usually perceived. Commonly, classroom management or classroom control is thought of as preserving order, maintaining control, or disciplining. While observance of school organizational policies, classroom work routines, and general orderly conduct are important outcomes of effective management practices, thinking of management as merely a way of achieving these ends is not particularly useful in defining the management area of activity and responsibility.

Classroom management can be conceived as a distinct pattern of activities by which teachers establish and maintain conditions whereby individuals in the classroom can apply all their rational, creative talents to the challenge of educational tasks. It is the development of an effective classroom organization, and a predictable system of relationships. It involves selecting the method appropriate to the situation where problems arise which affect the functioning of the class organization. It is a vital aspect of teaching because intellectual vigor cannot prosper if children's energies

are constantly diverted by organizational problems or ineffective group relationships. Examples of such problems may be distractions caused by uncooperative individuals, or by group needs to make adaptations to relieve frustrating conditions. While the essence of classroom management is establishing an effective, cooperative classroom system, another crucial aspect is successfully handling the human behavior problems which arise in any organized face-to-face work group. Frayed tempers, suppressed or open hostility, individual or group frustrations resulting from ineffectual handling of the human problems in the classroom all lower or destroy individual competence. Therefore, classroom management involves much more than merely establishing a cooperative work group, satisfactory working conditions, and coordinating efforts toward predetermined objectives. Management activities include maintaining the system and restoring it when unresolved problems threaten group integration, or cause individuals to react in disruptive and nonproductive ways.

### Classroom Management and the Total Teaching Transaction

A clear concept of the nature of classroom management cannot be developed without first placing management within the context of the total teaching transaction. The word *teaching* refers to the actions of persons who instruct or who guide the learning processes of others. Usually, *teaching* evokes the idea of instructing individuals in a subject or skill area. Classroom management, on the other hand, relates to actions which organize and coordinate the human and environmental factors in the situation so that instruction can take place. The job of teaching is not well described by long lists of the competencies needed by teachers to perform specific teaching tasks, nor is a cataloguing of discrete role-functions very useful. The teaching transaction must be considered broadly to include the less tangible job characteristics, but clearly define specific areas of teachers' activities and responsibilities.

One way of looking at the teaching transaction is to consider it as having two basic dimensions or patterns of activities: instructional activities and management activities. By concentrating on these basic dimensions, it is possible then to proceed to identify the specific patterns of activities or teaching functions required in each dimension. For example, instructional activities are concerned with the teaching of reading, writing, arithmetic, and other school subjects. Management activities are directed toward creating the best conditions for integrating learning objectives and individual group goals. This means that individuals will find it more satisfying and more personally rewarding to work on school tasks and

conduct themselves in socially acceptable ways than it is to resist learning tasks or to conduct themselves in ways that are disruptive, uncooperative, or unacceptable to their classmates or others in the school.

The instructional tasks that children perform in the classroom are spelled out in detail by the school, curriculum, teacher, and textbooks. Management tasks are not. Each instructional area has its own demands and requirements, and so has each area of management—if the job of management is conceived as a basic dimension of teaching. Sometimes the instructional tasks demand that the children work together; sometimes each child works alone. But even when the learning task is individualized, the cooperation of all children is needed because each child is working on his own special assignment, but in the midst of many others. There are few private cubicles for individuals to retire to in order to be alone to do their work. If one or a few pupils are flipping paper pellets toward others who are attempting to complete learning assignments, the working situation is affected; certainly a co-operative work spirit does not prevail. If the teacher is forced to command that such behavior stop immediately, the work climate continues to be affected negatively. Generally, when the teacher must take action against a class member, the group as a whole tends to shift support to the member, even though previously the group found the member's behavior annoying.

The management dimension of teaching consists of a number of functions or patterns of activities that teachers perform as an integral part of the total teaching job. These activities are concerned mainly with individuals as they interact with the classroom group and with collective behaviors. Management practices focus upon creating conditions in which individuals in the classroom can best achieve their own personal goals by directing their efforts toward achieving the educational objectives for their own class or grade. This approach to classroom management has implications profoundly different from the traditional approach. In the first place, although the instructional dimension of teaching is largely individual, i.e., it is a teacher-pupil transaction insofar as this is possible, the management dimension of teaching is largely group oriented. Management activities are concerned with integrating the group, and with creating conditions so that individual children perceive that they can meet their own needs best by cooperating and directing their efforts toward task completion. Another way of describing what classroom management is all about is this: it is the process of handling those problems that affect instruction by using processes that increase group unity and cooperation, and, in addition, strengthen each child's feelings of dignity, worth, and his satisfaction with classroom conditions.

teachers perform; everything else in the instructional area depends on how well they can meet the requirements in this aspect of the teaching transaction.

That teachers must be competent to handle classroom management problems is recognized by all persons engaged in the educational process. Beginning teachers usually express concern about this aspect of teaching. Their questions and comments indicate that they have their greatest doubts about their ability to manage, control, or handle disciplinary problems. Some beginning teachers reveal their concern by stating that they do not wish to teach in schools in suburban neighborhoods of city areas which have the reputation for being difficult.

There is no doubt that beginning teachers conceptualize this facet of teaching in many different ways. However, there are very good reasons for their concern. From their own experiences as pupils in the elementary school, they realize that those teachers who could not handle children were held in low regard by the pupils themselves. Although beginning teachers may not know this as a fact, they sense that priority is given to their ability to manage when their total teaching performance is appraised by supervisors, administrators, and others.

Perhaps the most dramatic way to illustrate the importance of skillful management is to describe what can happen in an elementary classroom with a teacher who lacked the skills necessary for carrying out the management function. The example is a report given by a teacher who described an incident involving a sixth grade class in a school in a disadvantaged neighborhood.

This particular class has always been hard to handle. Many of the children are well behaved, but there are some who "stir" things up if it appears that for once the class has settled down to complete their work and finish on time.

On this particular day, there was a good deal of excited talk and rumors in the class because a nearby junior high school was having a strike. The youngsters at the junior high school had walked out at noon, saying they would not come back unless certain demands were met. Some children in my class found out what was happening when they went home for lunch.

When afternoon recess came, the class went out for ten minutes' relaxation and drinks. When it came time to come back in and resume work, they simply did not return to the classroom! They did not do much. They just stood, but all resisted entering the building.

The tactics employed to force return, after about twenty minutes' delay, were disruptive. Though

these methods succeeded in forcing them to return, they were completely unable to continue with *their class work*. This attitude was demonstrated by a series of disruptive and delaying behavior, such as lost pencils, broken pencils, torn paper, and constant questioning about the assignment. The situation seemed innocent enough on the surface, but it was completely successful in creating a "work stoppage." Eventually the class achieved a surface appearance of working, but nothing was accomplished during the rest of the day.

This description of a class group's uncooperative behavior is unusual behavior for children at the elementary school level. It is uncommon for elementary children to take such obvious measures of resisting as refusing to return to their class and their school work. However, even young children can and do slow up the procedure of returning to the building, and much work and study time is lost. And they do use disruptive and delaying tactics which prevent individuals from concentrating on their work and completing it within a normal time limit. Although the example is extreme, it does serve to illustrate what can happen as a result of poor management practices or practices which fail to gain the willing cooperation of children to work and follow orderly processes.

It is not necessary to establish that the social order is undergoing a major upheaval and that long-established institutional practices, among other things, are being summarily rejected, strongly resisted, or violently protested. In the past, when change came slowly, institutional practices had time to reformulate and to accommodate to new demands. Basic to the survival of the institution of the school is the recognition that long-accepted ideas and assumptions relating to school transactions and practices must be revised and, in some cases, replaced. New conditions require new conceptions.

The task of bringing classroom practices and ways of thinking about the teaching task into harmony with existing conditions is an urgent educational need and is actually only a single facet of a larger problem. The elementary school organization, including functional conceptions as well as classroom practices, lags seriously behind social-psychological research and technological advances. Until adjustments are made and available scientific knowledge is employed, many classrooms will be in a state of disharmony and crisis. Tensions created by demands of society will continue to act as a powerful disrupting force on teachers and classroom groups.

Out of the social tempest has developed a new breed of teachers. For years teachers have said that their most urgent problems were not in the area of instruction but directly in the area of



management. Teachers today openly display their dissatisfaction with traditional theories and suggested practices. It appears that all too frequently teachers downgrade their total teacher-education experience on the basis that their education failed to provide them with workable, operational methods of classroom management that coincide with the values they themselves hold, and which education so vigorously professes. Many teachers leave teaching because they fail to manage classes successfully.

One young man who was leaving teaching after a year in the fifth grade, described his experience as follows:

I could never get started! From the first minute of the first day, it was a continuous contest among the youngsters to see who could come up with a question that would disrupt the whole lesson. If it wasn't that, there were always remarks that set everyone to laughing. The class would laugh over nothing. If I took a strong stand, they would call "foul," and say they certainly couldn't be punished for laughing! Or they would act completely innocent and ask if they were to be punished for asking questions.

The young man was embittered because nothing in his teacher training had prepared him for handling a solidified, collective action which stymied his attempts to teach. The crowning blow came when his continued appeals for help were denied or shrugged aside because, in the eyes of the supervisors and administrators, he did not need help. The reason for this, it seemed, was that the instant someone visited the room the class members suddenly became models of deportment. Therefore, his difficulties in gaining attention and cooperation were not apparent to visitors to his class.

Teachers must deal with complex fluid situations the minute their classes assemble for work. They must know a great deal about each child in order to help each achieve according to his ability. But just as important—if not more important—is the necessity for teachers to have the knowledge and skill necessary to cope with the class organization and to recognize its problems. They must be able to establish as well as maintain an environment in which individuals can work together side by side, each developing his own potential. The teachers of today's children must be able to deal effectively with management problems, as well as know successful instructional techniques. Both areas—instruction and management—are vital to teaching success because each supports the other. Although the majority of curriculum and methods texts contain a chapter dealing, in some fashion, with the management aspect of teaching, there are very few books that concentrate solely on classroom management. Some teacher-train-

ing programs have courses in *classroom management*, which run concurrently with classroom observation or student teaching. Often these courses emphasize organizing materials, handling supplies, preparing seat work, and so forth; there is much less emphasis on managing human problems. Learning how to manage or control the classroom situation is based on the "learn by doing" principle. In fact, in much of the educational literature there is an inference that actually learning "how to manage" is the result of classroom practice and of applying lessons of experience. At present, the beginner has neither a conceptual framework for managing the total class group nor well-tested methods. In the management of teaching, some teachers remain beginners all their lives. Others, as a result of incompetency in this area, leave teaching.

Few will argue that teachers are asked to leave teaching, or drop out on their own accord, because they are incompetent in teaching in the subject areas. The cause, most often, is incompetency in managing the situation; therefore, they are unable to perform their instructional tasks.

## CURRENT CONCEPTIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

Because classroom management is so crucial to teachers' success in instructional transactions, one might assume that many of the major questions have been answered, and that teachers are able to use tested and established principles and generalizations to handle classroom management problems. It is rather astonishing that, to date, so little has been discovered about how to tap the unrealized potential present in the classroom organization. Also, one may wonder why it is that the social sciences have not been utilized more effectively than they have been to increase teachers' skill in solving the classroom management problems that occur and which obstruct instructional processes, or reduce individual functioning.

Whether the problem is knowing what to do when a few individuals disrupt work procedures, or whether it is knowing how to achieve unity, resolve conflicts, or some other human problem in classroom organization, teachers are often at a loss to know what to do after they try suggested educational procedures which fail to solve the problem. In view of all the value-theories and efforts expended in providing teachers with a foundation for understanding individuals, why does this situation exist? To partially answer this question it is necessary to examine briefly some of the various educational practices and approaches concerned with, or related to, classroom management.

## Perceived and Actual Behavior

Education has developed a system of labels and classifications for individuals and classroom groups which are generally accepted as being valid. These labels and classifications determine, to a considerable degree, teacher attitudes and conduct. They affect what teachers may do or may not do when confronted with a management problem.

Because classifications and labels direct our ways of looking at situations and the behavior of people in them, it may be useful to differentiate between perceived and actual behavior, and how teachers' perceptions affect their management practices. Perceived behavior is any given individual's way of looking at reality. Actual behavior is what a number of reliable observers say actually occurred. All individuals see the world the way they presume it is. However, each person's way of perceiving things can change at different stages of development. As teachers progress through their teacher-education program, they go through a developmental process which changes, to some degree, the way they view the teaching transaction. How classroom management is perceived is determined to a large degree by names and labels attached to groupings of children and to individuals. These names and labels determine and fix the way teachers look at the children and the classes they teach.

Teachers are continually exhorted to identify problem children. They are taught to speak of *high* and *low* groups. There is the inference, usually, that a low group is a type of problem group; and often when speaking of a low group, teachers indicate, by their tone of voice and manner of speaking, that teaching a class of children who are low in ability is undesirable. It is assumed that slower children will be problems and, of course, they *are* problems to teachers who view them as such. Because it is more or less expected that low-ability children tend to misbehave, very frequently they respond as expected. In most cases, however, it is the situation that arouses certain reactions rather than an inherent tendency of *slower* children to be difficult or less responsive than *faster* youngsters in the social area of behavior.

These expressions and labels used to distinguish good and poor classroom groups, or high and low achievers, problem and non-problem children, are informative in one sense only. They are not statements of fact, but they do convey to teachers how the classroom teaching situation, the individuals in the class, and the group as a whole will be perceived. This method of labeling and classifying leads to rigidity of perception. When teachers are taught to identify problem children, they will certainly not only look for them, but will find them. When youngsters sense that

they are looked upon as problems, they rarely fail to disappoint.

Children are sometimes classified as *difficult* before they ever exhibit unruly behavior. It is not difficult to find in the educational literature statements that not only direct teachers to search for problem children; factors and conditions that tend to make children become problems in school are identified. Broken homes, low social-economic background, and working mothers are but a few. Because certain background conditions are specified as factors contributing to poor classroom behavior, some children are perceived as belonging in the problem-behavior category before they ever behave as their background indicates they should. At this point it must be remembered that scientific verifiability rests upon observation of facts, not upon judgments or conclusions.

The method of labeling, classifying, and speaking about the individuals in the class and the class group itself not only prescribes how the total teaching situation will be viewed; it actually determines how teachers will act, and the nature of the practices they will employ. When situations arise in the classroom that involve human relationships and ways of working together, and when certain problems are perceived as resulting from the composition of the group, or because of the presence of problem children, this way of thinking and perceiving the situation directs the course of action teachers will take. To illustrate: those teachers who are assigned low-achieving groups usually assume that many individuals will be problems because these children have the ability to achieve if they wished to do so. The grouping practice as well as the label reflects an underlying belief that teachers must counteract an inherent tendency on the part of these youngsters to resist working to their full capacity. To get them to put forth adequate effort, they must be motivated (coerced), directed, and controlled by rewards and by the withholding of rewards. When teachers have classes in which the children are grouped according to academic ability, they tend to view them in the light of these abilities. A high group falls into the *good* classification, a low-ability group into the *poor*. A poor group is perceived as requiring more effort on the part of the teacher because of management problems and because they must be induced to perform at a higher level. Thus, how individuals and groups are classified and labeled has an enormous influence upon teacher-group and teacher-pupil interaction processes.

A basic belief pervading the educational theory of classroom control or discipline is that one or more individual children having social and emotional difficulties exert disturbing forces which upset orderly classroom procedures. From this assumption comes a basic principle: the management of problem behavior is based upon teachers' knowledge of individual behavior and understanding the causes for individual disturbances. Very often these social

and psychological factors which supposedly cause the behavior are outside the boundaries of teacher influence. This, in turn, leads to feelings of inadequacy on the part of the teachers, who perceive that with all their understanding there is very little they can do to change the situation.

It will be shown in a later chapter that individual children now labeled *problems* because their behavior is disrupting or non-cooperating, may not be problems at all. These children may be assisting the group to adapt to pressure and frustration. They may be performing a management function needed by the class organization which is not provided by the teacher. Many children perceived at present as recalcitrant and unruly because their antics keep the class in an uproar may not be problems in the sense that they have social and emotional difficulties. Often it is quite the opposite. The difficulty lies within the group organization, and these youngsters are performing an informal leadership function to ease the situation.

The present method of classifying children, and all the variables related to the classroom management process, determine to a considerable degree teacher attitudes and conduct when dealing with individual and collective behavior. These classifications are potent in the sense that they exert a considerable effect upon what teachers do or may not do to manage the classroom system. They tend to be strict with so-called poor groups and more lenient when they perceive the class as good.

Education has arrived at this method of labeling because of the inability to deal with the social organization of the school and classroom and its effects on individual behavior. The fact that the behavior of each individual is determined to a considerable extent by the pattern of the school organization and the structuring of the classroom system has been overlooked in education's single approach to the psychology of the individual child and its intense concern over individualizing the instructional practices. In the management area of teaching, this classification system is inadequate. It does not explain the collective behavior of children in the classroom groups, and it has not proved useful in developing better management practices. Various suggested techniques based on this method of labeling have not led to predictable results; any system of classifying and labeling should lead to improved prediction and control of the individuals and groups so labeled and classified.

## Suggested Practices and Underlying Assumptions

Why are the assumptions and deeply held convictions underlying educational theory and practice important for a consideration of new ways of perceiving and thinking about classroom

management? They are important because educational theories affect the classroom organizational system and the directions classroom management practices will take.

Underlying the principles of conventional classroom management practices are a number of assumptions about the behavior of children in school situations; these are, at best, only partially true. Knowledge accumulated over the past few decades regarding the behavior of individuals in organized face-to-face groups challenges or contradicts some of the assumptions which continue to be axiomatic in educational theory, principles, and practices of classroom control.

One assumption pervading educational theory is that the misbehavior of individuals is often a reaction to academic or subject-matter frustration. When children are unable to perform to levels expected they become unruly. Because the cause of frustration is assumed to be lack of ability to perform some part of an assignment, teachers are told that they should remove the causes of frustration by diagnosing the learning problem and by helping individuals overcome the handicap.

When an individual is frustrated because he cannot do some part of an assignment, it is usually fairly obvious to teachers. Diagnosing learning difficulties is an essential facet of the instructional dimension of teaching, and teachers are trained thoroughly in this aspect of teaching. While aggravation because of work that is too difficult, or assignments that are unclear, are undoubtedly causes of frustration to some pupils, it does not explain many kinds of disruptive behavior.

Lack of interest because of poorly planned lessons is another reason given for the deviant behavior of some children. However, the teacher who provided the following incident planned lessons carefully and used many devices to arouse interest and to give the lessons meaning. Despite the efforts taken to make instruction interesting and meaningful, the following behavior was characteristic of the class.

Victor is a low-achiever and a show-off. His record shows that during primary grades he worked to his ability level, but for the past two years he has taken to playing around and not working. He claims the work is too hard, but when it is made easier, he quickly finishes and goes into his act. He is very popular with the class, and times when he does settle down, it seems that someone starts him off again.

He is always doing something that causes everyone in the class to stop work and laugh. This often leads to talking and causes comments to be directed to him by other children.

The other day Jane brought a costume to school that is

commonly worn by nomadic Arabs. It was obvious that it had been worn and handled a good deal. The long robe was cream-colored and, although it was not dirty, it was soiled in appearance. Many questions were asked and interest was high until Victor took the stage. He asked if he could feel the robe. Once at the front of the room, he placed a corner of the yellowish-white material against Jean's white blouse. With an appearance of great innocence he asked, "Now what wash day product do you suppose they use?" This remark caused loud laughing. After a reprimand he said in a hurt tone, "But that's a serious question! How and when do they wash out in the desert?" The class thought this very humorous also, and it took some time to get them settled down and serious again.

Most of the time this boy is not even funny, but he has a good sense of timing and no matter what he says or does, the class responds with loud laughter. This serves to divert or upset many class discussions and many other lessons when groups are working together.

I have tried to give him opportunities to show off in constructive ways but he seems only interested in upsetting the whole class from time to time.

The concern of this teacher was for the behavior of one child who was labeled a low-achiever and a show-off. There is evidence that the teacher made efforts to appeal to his show-off tendencies, but was not successful. Although the class reaction was not what might be expected of a cooperative group, the teacher was not very concerned about the class reaction to Victor. The concern implied was because one member of the class diverted the attention of the others from the class work. Instead of focusing attention on Victor, the teacher should have asked why the children could be so easily diverted from their activities by the actions of one child.

Youngsters who are truly show-offs are not appreciated for long by children in a classroom organization that is attractive and satisfying. After a very short time, class reactions to individuals who continually seek attention are these: they are told to quiet down, or their attempts to show off are ignored. The problem described in the incident lies within the group, not with Victor.

Each person who suggests classroom control practices has convictions about the way children behave in school. Sometimes these are explicitly stated in bulletins which profess to give teachers teaching tips: "Do not ask a child to stop an annoyance—tell him to stop whatever he is doing, because if you give him the slightest opportunity to answer back, he will do so." Sometimes convic-

lems within the classroom group. The actions of other teachers, administrators, or members of the school personnel can create problem situations that the teacher cannot solve by using good instructional practices, taking care of individual differences, recognizing individual needs, or having understanding of, and empathy for, children.

The formal organization of class groups (or groupings), the methods employed to control these groups, and school policies and rules tend to create a situation in which the children often adapt by behaving in ways unsuitable, inappropriate, or inimical to planned learning programs. Because there is a lack of knowledge relating to children in organized group settings, teachers often tend to react in ways that increase resistance and antagonism.

There are a number of other assumptions concerning the behavior of children in the classroom, which if different would lead inevitably to quite different management practices. They are mentioned briefly because they are discussed more fully in other sections of the book.

The idea that all children wish to *belong* to their classroom group, and to be accepted by members, is incorrect. Children only desire to belong to groups that are in some way attractive. If a group is "low," if members are perceived collectively as "dumb," there is little desire to belong or to be accepted even though some of the children may have strong friendship ties with members in their neighborhood associations.

The way things are viewed or presented can have profound effects upon teachers' classroom behavior. For example, in speaking of classrooms where there are individual differences in races or social classes, teachers are reminded that when interpersonal relations are poor, they must solve the social relations problem. This is not a 'problem'; it is a condition which needs changing. It is not a problem in the sense that unknowns are involved or a choice must be made. The situation is clear—steps must be taken to unify the group. Any incidents which arise as the result of noncohesiveness in the group may be considered as problems because before the various incidents can be solved, the main elements must be identified and isolated. When the social, ethnic, or racial composition of the class results in a lack of unity, it is not a problem to be solved. It means only that teachers must take appropriate actions to change conditions in the class organization. And there is information which tells teachers how to effect this change.

Another faulty assumption is revealed by suggestions that teachers can increase friendship patterns by showing acceptance of those youngsters who are neglected or rejected by their classmates. The idea that teachers can influence group reactions to individuals by



tions about children's behavior are implied in suggestions given to teachers: "Do not threaten unless you intend and are able to carry out the threat." It is far more common, however, for educators to reveal their convictions about the behavior of individuals in the school situation with statements that also reflect a commitment to democratic practices and concern for the psychosocial development of boys and girls. For example, some educators state, "A child unsure of parental affection may seek the attention he wants by misbehaving at school, which causes him to get scolded and punished. Teachers must develop sensitivity and understanding concerning the reason behind the difficult behavior, but still not permit behavior that is harmful and disrupting." The suggestion given for dealing with the misbehaving child is often contained in a statement such as the following: "Talk with the child—not to him, and help him free himself of his tensions and hurt."

The last advice reveals a commonly held belief that children bring all the problems encountered at home to the schoolroom situation. Of course, even some adults are incapacitated at work because of pressures at home, but the large majority manage to function normally if conditions are satisfying and pleasant. When the work situation is supporting, individuals can function in spite of outside problems and difficulties. If someone should argue that children differ in this respect from adults, the question might be asked, at what age or point in time does this situation cease to exist? It appears more reasonable to assume that children who react negatively at school because of conditions at home do so because they find that the school situation only compounds their troubles.

The idea inherent in much of educational theory is that most individuals in the classroom will respond with docility if teachers are able instructors, i.e., the lessons are well prepared, and learning difficulties are diagnosed correctly. The children who misbehave are those who have problems, the sources of which are due to outside influences or personal lacks in ability. If teachers are not good instructors, then many children may react negatively because of poor teaching. This theory is unrealistic because there are so many factors in the environment that can and do affect the classroom system. The idea that good instruction alone solves many control problems ignores the fact that when people are placed together in a formal organizational setting the system itself has requirements to keep it functioning. When needs arise because those of the organized grouping are not cared for, or if they are blocked, the normal reaction is for members to take action to achieve satisfaction.

The classroom group is a system within the larger school organization. Rules, policies, and school control practices can cause prob-

leadership practices. In recent years there has been a shift in the goals set for education. Public pressures have increasingly caused the schools to concentrate upon skill learning and understanding in the basic elementary school subjects. Presently, the focus is upon mastery of language, mathematics, basic sciences, history, and, in some instances, foreign languages. An essentially academic orientation is gaining prominence, notably at the elementary school level. It is paradoxical that, at a time when youth is rebelling and people of every age level are demanding better and more considerate treatment, forces in society are weakening the elementary schools' emphasis upon the social development of young children.

This shift in goals—instead of educating the total child, the concentration upon developing intellectual power—is evidenced in a change in approaches to control practices. Current literature stresses discipline, when not so long ago the emphasis was on developing a good environment, establishing a positive climate for learning, or employing democratic leadership practices.

The emphasis on establishing a good social climate in the classroom focuses upon learning to live and work with others and upon fostering wholesome emotional development. Techniques of group leadership are often stressed in this approach, with discussion centered on democratic leadership practices. Although no one denies that democratic leadership practices are desirable, what they are and how they are put into practice is seldom clear. Many times the suggestions run somewhat as follows:

1. Help each child to accept individual differences.
2. Provide opportunities for each to make unique contributions to various classroom activities.
3. Help each individual to understand and accept such realities as differences in race, religion, economic status, and physical differences.
4. Plan work so that the abilities of each member of the class are utilized, rather than the abilities of just a few who are more gifted.

The last statement makes explicit that some individuals are "better" than others. This suggestion might have been made: that activities which utilize the differing abilities of class members be planned. It is very difficult to make democratic processes operational while stressing individual differences, such as gifted versus slow students.

Exponents of developing a good social climate often base their suggestions upon the assumption that one of the chief aims of education is to safeguard the democratic way of life. Some of the techniques to realize this end are group sharing and collective learning. This point of view aims to develop individuality and originality through group participation. Of course, democratic individuals can develop only in those groups where democratic

paying particular attention to those who are fringe members can only do great damage to the individuals selected for attention; it will also weaken group unity. When working with the group as a whole, using group methods, teachers neither ignore or favor individuals; all are treated the same. Of course, when working with individuals on a one-to-one basis, the teacher is as supportive as necessary. In the group situation, however, no child is selected for special attention. It is frequently stated that if a pupil is favorably evaluated by the teacher, he in turn will evaluate the teacher favorably. It is far more accurate to say that if the teacher evaluates the *group* favorably, the children will respond in kind. In a unified group, few children desire to be evaluated more favorably than their peers. Far more satisfaction is gained by being part of a group that is held in high esteem.

## EDUCATIONAL APPROACHES AND POINTS OF VIEW

Because the management aspect of teaching has always been a matter of some concern to educators, there have developed a number of approaches to this topic. The fact that method textbooks usually contain a chapter espousing one approach or another has resulted in much confusion as to what classroom management really is, what the theory is, and how management practices should be employed in the classroom. It is important for teachers to be able to recognize the various approaches to classroom management; to know the difference between value-based judgments and operational procedures derived from theory and research. Classroom management is difficult enough without teachers having to face confusion and, at times, apparent contradiction.

This book considers classroom management to be a process of establishing and maintaining the internal environment of the group and the classroom conditions for the attainment of educational goals. This approach is operational because it attempts to analyze classroom management in terms of what teachers must actually do to establish and maintain this environment and to develop a cooperative work group. Although other approaches to classroom management do not reflect development from a theoretical base, they do stem from philosophical and value-based judgments. In this respect, they have made important contributions.

### Classroom Climate

For almost half a century the theory of education emphasized the social development of children and the use of democratic

1. Creating interest in lessons. Presenting the subjects with attention-getters and using a vocabulary children can understand.
2. Planning carefully; having all necessary materials ready for distribution; always beginning lessons promptly.
3. Anticipating the misbehaving student and checking, without exception, infringements of class or school regulations.
4. Listening to the problems of individuals and contributing to their solution.
5. Establishing a receptive class atmosphere. Encouraging pupils by giving due attention to their needs and requests.
6. Practicing marginal vision. Using a code of signals (teacher-pupil reminders through use of sign language); watching seating; placing students judiciously.
7. Studying permanent records for clues to reasons for problem behavior.
8. Building bridges between the teacher and the student by treating each one as an individual and by responding to each one whenever possible.
9. Making the "punishment fit the crime." For example, if a child defaces the walls of the school with crayons, make him chairman of a committee to make the school beautiful.

Educators are always concerned with human relations, and suggested practices are prefaced by statements which indicate this concern. Proposed methods are frequently inconsistent with the stated philosophy. Suggested actions, for example, do not fit the words. This is caused mainly by lack of a scheme which classify management problems and analyzes the process of classroom management. There is no foundation upon which to build practice.

## Classroom Discipline

When the management area of teaching is considered as discipline, it is usually interpreted as involving mutual respect, understanding, and a growing self-control on the part of youngsters. The emphasis is placed on self-discipline—the need to learn self-control, to make correct decisions, and to govern one's actions in ways that will promote the happiness and well-being of oneself and others. Opinions of what is meant by classroom discipline may vary, but there is agreement on what discipline is not. Writers on this topic generally take great pains to make it clear that they do not mean punishment, or keeping order, or any kind of rigid control, but that they do mean guiding youngsters toward self-discipline.

One common approach to discipline is to stress the goals or kind of conduct desired. Emphasis is upon what teachers are working for—the goals of self-disciplined individuals in our society. (This

leadership is employed. From the standpoint of these advocates, a democratic teacher is one who stimulates or enables each child to contribute whatever he can to the total effort of the group. Democratic leadership becomes, then, a technique of guidance rather than a process of compulsion.

The point of view briefly stated in the foregoing paragraph relates to instruction. Group-centered advocates reject the traditional identification of discipline with control practices or pressure tactics and proposes the need for self-discipline. This point of view also stresses group learning and group instructional practices. It is often based upon opinion and value-based judgments rather than upon a systematic, conceptual frame of reference.

Because the position advocated here states that management practices use, in large part, group techniques, it must not be confused with group-centered education.

## Classroom Control

Often, approaches to classroom management called control, or discipline, differ merely in name. They all attempt to deal with such problems as aggressive reactions, restlessness, nonconformity to established standards, indifference to the work at hand, and other disturbing behavior. Perhaps when the term control is employed, it is because the development of self-control is implied, or perhaps it is the result of recognition of the fact that the behavioral sciences, as well as the physical sciences, are preoccupied with prediction and control.

Contrary to other approaches, when classroom management is perceived as control, many varied formulas are given for achieving and maintaining control. The formulas or prescriptions range from statements concerning what teachers should be personally, to statements directing teacher actions to achieve and maintain control in the classroom.

Suggestions relating to control practices frequently imply that performance depends on personal characteristics rather than on fundamental skills. For example, teachers are told that control practices will be improved if teachers remember to

1. Speak distinctly with a pleasant, friendly voice.
2. Act professionally by being courteous, considerate, and dignified.
3. Show self-confidence and purpose by letting the class know exactly what is expected.
4. Show little emotion and maintain personal self-control at all times.

In addition to being a particular kind of person who acts in particular ways, effective control, it is said, is brought about and maintained by

two or more problem youngsters may band together to cause trouble.

3. That teachers can control individuals in groups by commanding obedience and that this had a positive effect on others.
4. Deviant youngsters can be trained to respond to teachers' control techniques, much as a puppy can be trained to come to heel.

It is frequently the case that teachers in training are expected to combine the different ways of viewing discipline. Amalgamation of these views is intellectually as well as operationally unmanageable. It is not surprising that teachers who wish to make their management practices more effective often downrate "methods" courses, because very frequently texts on methods of teaching in a subject area include a section on discipline, control, management, or how to develop a climate for learning.

A third approach to discipline stresses democratic membership in an organization, and also emphasizes process—*how* instead of *what* or *why*. Often this is the student-government approach, which approves the idea of shifting the responsibility for "disciplining" to class officers—under the guise of training children for mature participation in a democratic society. This approach proposes that teachers step aside and become just another member of the classroom group. They participate in discussions, respect the position of the class president, ask permission to speak, and in all ways assume the role of a member of the class organization.

It is interesting to note that often the student-government approach warns teachers that they must subtly guide the work of the student government in the following ways: using various means to ensure that each child has the opportunity to hold an office; making tactful suggestions to guarantee that children will consider such things as caring for play equipment; dealing with common behavior problems; answering the situation so that children will not take it upon themselves to administer punishment; or handling the cases of exceptional children who are psychological problems. Finally, teachers are admonished to make sure that law and order is enforced by the student government and that self-discipline is developed by some type of improvement program employing self-analysis and self-criticism. The last suggestion implies that the work of the student government is that of policing actions, determining guilt, and designating punishment.

Teachers with the best intentions, and under the guise of "teaching democracy," have suggested or sanctioned this student-government practice: having a wrongdoer stand in the front of the room and tell the whole class all the wrong things he did, the bad effects his actions had on the class, and give his pledge as to his future intentions and behavior. Although textbooks which suggest police-state methods do not advocate such practices as public confessions,

approach regards highly the self-disciplined individuals in our society.) This approach views self-discipline thus: respecting the rights of others, developing a sense of responsibility, adjusting to the demands of varied situations, meeting one's obligations, and so forth. No one will deny that these are laudable objectives, but few teachers will deny that, though commendable and desirable, as objectives they are nonoperational.

This approach also stresses democratic leadership processes. Again the emphasis is upon what is desirable and little attention is given to how democratic leadership actually operates. The premise seems to be that if teachers understand the goals of democratic leadership, they will somehow be able to develop practices to reach these goals. No one denies the importance of understanding the role of authority in a democracy, but no real progress has been made in putting the democratic ideal into actual practice in the classroom. When teachers find that pupils do not always abide by the regulations—and if, for example, these regulations are for purposes of safety and are mandatory—they find no useful framework of principles which make the democratic leadership approach operationally manageable. Having no knowledge of effective practices, they are forced to take authoritarian measures.

Another basic approach to management as discipline is to consider various types of misbehavior and discipline problems. Many books and articles are devoted to increasing teacher understanding concerning social and psychological factors that contribute to children's misbehavior. Often included are sketches showing how teachers themselves may be a primary cause of disciplinary problems because they employ inappropriate teaching styles. The emphasis in this approach is upon why children behave as they do. Although constructive methods of control are often suggested, the assumption is that if teachers understand why children behave as they do, they will be able to select appropriate techniques and handle misconduct and deviancy. Among suggestions given are: make commands clear and firm; see that the disciplinary action is carried out; locate the deviants so that it is unnecessary to punish the whole class; do not threaten, but act firmly and quickly.

The claim is often made that such suggestions are based squarely on psychological principles. However, the principles are rarely stated. Perhaps psychological principles do apply when the situation is strictly a one-to-one relationship between teacher and pupil, and when the members of the classroom organization are not witnesses or in any way involved. It seems that the assumptions underlying this approach are

1. That misbehavior and deviancy from accepted school practices are to be expected.
2. That disciplinary problems are individual in nature, even though

vironmental factors affecting the total situation. Teachers need to be trained to think in relationships and not merely in terms of individuals, their needs, and the social and psychological causes for their behavior patterns. Individuals behave in an organized setting differently than they do in less organized and controlled situations. Regarding a major cause of management or discipline problems, thinking at present is that the school makes demands on some individuals which they are unable to meet, or these demands are in some way unacceptable. The view is that the inability of individuals to meet these demands leads to misbehavior and teacher problems of management. In addition, the "problem child" is considered to be the result of outside environmental factors which make him unable to adjust to school and educational processes unless he is changed. Outside factors do, of course, influence individuals, but the study of children and why they behave as they do cannot be divorced intelligently from the study of the psychological factors influencing the classroom group and the effects of this organized group upon the individuals in it.

Teachers must think about individual needs and about individual behavior, but overemphasis on an individual approach can be very misleading. Concentration on teacher-pupil relationships and a disregard for teacher-group interactions lead to ways of perceiving and thinking about classroom management which influences, and to an enormous extent controls, a teacher's management behavior in the classroom.

The brief examination of the approaches to classroom management is not to point out the misconceptions concerning classroom management. Rather, the objective is to move from present conceptions toward an objective analytical framework and more operational concepts to describe classroom management.

Teacher-training programs supposedly provide a basis for classroom management by providing a foundation in educational psychology, sociology, and philosophy. Although teachers, of course, can learn something about dealing with individuals in groups as a result of this background information, it does not provide a completely acceptable theory of the nature and functioning of individuals in an organized setting. Until there is at least the beginnings of such a theory, there can be no conceptual basis for developing effective management practices.

## NEED FOR A NEW CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The ferment over schools and educational processes today is rooted in man's deep concern for his individuality and his inherent need to fully develop his potential. Public pressure for improve-



without a systematic framework for determining effective practices, misapplications of ideas frequently occur.

Textbooks reveal that there is a noteworthy absence of suggestions for handling group misconduct. When group misbehavior problems are considered, it is interesting to note that teachers are told to use the same practices as those used when dealing with an individual. The justification given is that each person must not only comprehend the group wrongdoing, but must also concentrate on his part in the situation. In other words, it seems that group misbehavior is viewed as the sum of each individual's behavior. It is not seen as collective behavior, separate and distinct from the behavior of individual members.

The numerous articles on discipline, which differ in approaches to the topic, lead to confusion and, oftentimes, to harmful practices that contribute to increasingly greater problems of classroom management. Perhaps the most damaging aspect of this confusion is that these approaches, none of which are based on systematic examination of management problems, or upon a scientifically based frame of reference, direct teachers to look at classroom management in ways that frequently lead them directly to destructive actions, or inaction. Not taking action, i.e., being "democratic," when action is needed can be as destructive to individual and group morale as using inappropriate methods to handle problems of misbehavior.

A major barrier to effective teacher performance in the management dimension is that most suggested practices are directives which set up goals, not actions. Suggested practices do not describe actual methods, nor do they assess the management situation toward which the suggested practices are directed. For the most part, they are value judgments which state desired outcomes. This statement is an example. "Problem behaviors will be reduced by providing well-planned, interesting learning activities." Teachers soon become disillusioned when they find that well planned, interesting lessons and materials do not eliminate management problems that stem from environmental pressures or from conditions arising from the class group's internal system.

Present ways of thinking and talking about children not only affect present practices, they obstruct new ways of thinking and perceiving. When behavioral phenomena occur in the classroom organization, teachers have no adequate frame of reference to assist them in diagnosing the difficulty. Their only recourse is to organize what they know about individual psychology, then make decisions and take actions.

The psychology of individuals interacting in an organizational setting indicates that the basic interrelated variables into which teachers need insight are the individuals who compose the group, the social psychology of the classroom organization, and the en-

human group. Often inappropriate actions are suggested. A good example of an attempt to control behavior, one which fails to consider the characteristics of the human group in an organized work setting, is that which suggests that the teacher establish a steering committee of sociometrically-derived class leaders to meet with the teacher to create laws and rules for the class to consider. A majority vote is required for a law to become binding. Once the laws are made, another committee (teacher-selected) is empowered to see that the laws are obeyed. In another somewhat similar plan, it is proposed that if rules and regulations are not carried out, children should make citizen arrests.

These practices, however, do not take into account several of the following well-demonstrated behavior characteristics of individuals grouped in an organized setting: authentic group leaders will not violate group norms or established patterns of behavior; suggestions made by such leaders, when the teacher is a member of the rule-making body, will be viewed as teacher-influenced rules by the remainder of the class (whether this is true or not); in a face-to-face classroom group, voting on rules or laws for controlling behavior splits the group and reduces unity and group cooperation; an internal policing system creates mistrust and dislike for the group itself.

Such practices will create attitudes and behaviors in direct opposition to those desired. While the processes may control certain classroom behavior, they will surely bring about a variety of adaptive and protective reactions. These reactions may include a deliberate interruption of work processes by members who ask numerous unnecessary questions under the guise of interested concern; work materials disappear; pencils break; and many grievances arise concerning the operation of the rules. Also, such procedures can create pressures that may find outlets in conflicts on the playground, and result in antagonistic reactions toward the children who attempt to administer such plans. The result of such suggested control procedures is costly in terms of decreased unity, increased pressure, and the number of new problems these procedures will create. The greatest cost comes from a reduction in energy directed toward instructional tasks. The depletion of energy used to counteract an unpleasant environment (and a face-to-face work situation which forces individuals to police one another certainly is unpleasant) drastically reduces the ability of individuals to achieve to their potentials.

While the management practices developed in the sections that follow rely heavily on self-direction, it is worth noting that this does not mean empowering youngsters to use authoritarian and often punitive practices to control behavior. This abdication of teacher responsibility can lead only to antagonisms and a reduction

ment in school practices reflects this need. What man feels he may have been denied, he wishes to assure for his children. A more scientific approach to classroom management and improved management practices will help children to find satisfaction for their egoistic and self-fulfillment needs in the school situation.

Education has recognized this need, and for the past quarter of a century has strived to reach the objective of enabling each child to develop to his maximum capabilities. However, even with our understanding of children's needs, and other aspects of their psychological development, it is admitted that present practices do not tap individual resources to the fullest, and with some children, very little, if at all. With rapidly expanding knowledge concerning the effects of the formal organization and the small, face-to-face work groups upon individual behavior and achievement, it is logical that education should extend present knowledge by examining all the factors in the total school situation which may increase children's achievement or retard their full development. The viewpoint presented here is that failure to consider all the variables in the school and classroom system underlies the failure of education to be equally effective with all children. A lack in understanding of the effects of the organization on individuals, and inability to deal with the collective behavior of the classroom group, is a major source of teacher ineffectiveness in achieving desired instructional goals.

It has been stated repeatedly that the task teachers must be trained to perform is that of managing the classroom group and building the most satisfying form of human organization, because instructional success depends upon how well this is done. This means developing a classroom system that is more responsive to human needs. It also means that teachers must be taught to predict and control behavior. Some teachers without formal training do predict quite successfully what the children in the group will do collectively, and they control this behavior in the sense that they take actions which result in desired consequences. But many teachers, because of the emphasis in teacher training upon individual techniques and teacher-pupil relationships, are woefully inadequate in their attempts to predict and control classroom behavior.

Before teaching can be respected as a profession, it must draw upon the knowledge of science and demonstrate an ability to predict and control human behavior. There should be no misconception concerning the nature of control in the field of human behavior: it involves selecting the appropriate means for dealing with behavior problems. It does not mean making individuals in the group behave as manipulated, ordered, or commanded human beings. At present, the various attempts to suggest methods for controlling behavior are often in direct violation of the nature of the

picture of the specific nature of the operations teachers must perform, nor do they clearly state what the job of classroom management is.

Since the personal-skill view is widely held in education, some may ask why it makes any difference if management is correctly perceived. Good teachers will be good at managing the children in the classroom. Unfortunately, the actual job of classroom management does not rest on personal attributes, nor does it rest upon good instructional practices. It is possible, perhaps, that following training, some teachers might become highly proficient at managing the class and be less proficient in instructional practices. One thing appears certain, however, and this is that education is paying a high price for its inability to train teachers to perform in the management dimension of teaching, and for its inability to measure the managerial aspects of teaching behavior. Large sums are expended by school districts to provide supervisory help in instruction, and for in-service programs, when often these aids are useless if teachers' management practices are ineffective.

One of the most serious results stemming from traditional views of classroom management is the use of surface behavior to appraise teacher skill in handling the children in the classroom. There is a failure to observe and evaluate how results were accomplished. Highly domineering teachers are noticed; however, some soft-voiced control practices have more disastrous results than obviously strict and authoritarian methods. Most techniques used to appraise teachers' management practices are haphazard, at best. The classroom facade is judged but the reality of the situation is overlooked. Teachers themselves usually know how results were achieved. When they must resort to pressuring tactics, no matter how soft the approach, they are dissatisfied. They ask what they can do to get children to act in approved ways—because they wish to do so, not because they are forced.

There are some very good reasons for seeking both a theory of classroom management, a method of implementing it, and techniques which provide some generally acceptable ways of measuring the success of teachers' management performances. Perhaps the most important reason for developing a systematic approach to classroom management practices is the teachers' need of it. At present many teachers are confused. They must develop individuality but keep firm control of the class; they are supposed to develop a permissive climate, yet maintain order and discipline; they must understand the child and the reasons for his behavior, yet keep him in line so instruction is not curtailed. Teachers often resent the platitudinous and axiomatic content of education's approach to classroom management. They seek more systematic knowledge based on disciplined methods rather than on elusive concepts derived from educational

in ability to perform learning tasks. Practices now taught and employed in classrooms provide strong evidence that a more scientifically based approach to classroom management is essential.

The knowledge about formally organized face-to-face work groups has accumulated rapidly over the past few years and contains much that is of direct relevance to teaching practice and, in particular, to classroom management practices. There is evidence, also, which suggests that teachers can be trained to develop skills in classroom management, and that effective performance depends upon the development of certain fundamental skills rather than upon personality traits. The use of the word *skill* refers to abilities that can be developed through laboratory training. This involves developing conceptual skills and the ability to translate knowledge into action in the classroom. One essential aspect of this skill training is developing an ability to sense the classroom organization as a whole and the environmental situation relevant to it. Another is to develop ability in understanding what certain group reactions mean, and the appropriate methods for changing conditions. Not to be forgotten is the necessity for developing an ability to successfully communicate with members of the classroom group. A systematic approach to classroom management and training which develops teachers' abilities to establish satisfying conditions, and to cope with actual classroom problems and situations they will find on the job, will enable youngsters to direct their energies toward achieving learning objectives.

## CHALLENGES TO EDUCATION

What then is classroom management? What is the nature of the tasks teachers must perform? These questions must be answered before a training program can be designed to improve teachers' skills, or before their classroom performance can be evaluated.

Historically, there have been many diverse answers. The management area of teaching has been perceived as a personal-skill aspect which emphasizes human relations. Teachers have personal qualities that enable them to administer justice and enact the right proportion of reward and punishment when individuals misbehave. Management is sometimes envisioned as a process of handling behavior problems and frictions which arise during the processes of instruction and which are handled summarily, though kindly, so instruction can proceed. Sometimes management is conceived as that of building a healthy climate, that of the teacher assuming a therapeutic role, or that of a confidant to help children solve personal problems. None of these approaches presents a very clear

havior, to make classroom organizations effective. It is now possible to set conditions that will release the resources of childrens' creative energies more effectively than at present.

The schools are responsible for organizing children, faculty, educational materials, equipment, and myriad other elements to achieve the objectives demanded by society. With respect to classroom management, the teacher's job involves a process of directing their efforts, gaining their cooperation, guiding the behavior of those who do not adapt easily, and modifying the behavior of all in the classroom to fit the needs of the instructional program. To a large degree, the conventional theory is that children's behavior must be directed or guided. To do this at the present time, teachers must appeal, persuade, or moralize. Children must be rewarded and punished to modify their behavior to meet learning objectives. Actually, present methods for controlling classroom behavior most often involve use of disguised coercion and threat. Many teachers do not wish to use such practices, but in difficult situations they must do something, so they resort to use of pressure. These pressure tactics breed counterpressures. They result in subtle and effective sabotage of work and study processes. They create antagonisms, aggressive reactions, or apathy and indifference. Just as the control practices used by teachers are disguised, the methods employed by children to resist are also disguised. Much classroom behavior, having no satisfactory explanation, is a method of resistance, or is a way the children have adopted to teacher-control the methods which attempt to make them tractable. Quite possibly, if teachers actually did work with children on a one-to-one basis instead of in a group situation, present methods of disguised coercion might be more effective. But teachers do not meet youngsters singly; they work with groups of individuals. Because the individuals are in an organized situation and act collectively in ways they never would act alone, different methods must be used. Further, the emphasis on the individualized approach leads teachers to the employment of control practices which are inimical to the natural desire of children for "groupiness." These practices ignore the group as an entity, and they ignore, as well, the fact that individuals often act collectively. Most of the suggested practices for classroom management are inadequate because they are either irrelevant to the situation, or they create conditions which give rise to numerous classroom management problems that might not occur if the practices were not used.

In redefining the task of classroom management, then, it is proposed that the job is to create conditions within the classroom group, as well as in the classroom environment, which enable students to behave, of their own accord, in socially approved ways. Because they do behave in ways that are approved, children's egoistic

## CHARACTERISTICS OF A USEFUL THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A useful framework for improving classroom management practices must develop certain basic concepts.

1. Classroom management involves the individual, the group, the school, and environmental factors which influence each of these components.
2. Teachers cannot assume that they are dealing only with individuals on a one-to-one basis. Practices must be consistent with a realistic view of the nature of the classroom group.
3. A basic component of the classroom organization is the individual. In all classroom situations some management difficulties may be caused by individuals with emotional problems. However, much problem behavior now perceived as individually caused is in reality, individuals acting as agents of the group.
4. Classroom groups, as a special class of organizations, have properties of their own, but they share properties with all formerly organized work groups.
5. The formally organized classroom group is an entity which continually seeks to develop and maintain itself. That is, teachers must understand that they not only must deal with individuals as individuals, but with the collective behaviors of the group organization. Management practices, for the most part, involve group methods rather than individualized practices.
6. Members of the group attempt, collectively, to adapt and adjust to the classroom environment. If communication is too restricted, if the control practices employed by teachers reduce the self-esteem of members, or if no attention is given to the need of groups to integrate and maintain morale, management problems will multiply.
7. Viewing management as a specific dimension of the total teaching act and analyzing behavior patterns commonly exhibited in classroom groups make it possible to describe explicitly the management functions required at different times and in different situations.
8. When certain describable conditions are present or established in groups, then a certain, definable behavior will predictably ensue. Conversely, if a classroom group behaves in certain ways, then the conditions causing such behavior can be assessed fairly accurately.

### Summary

Classroom management is an integral part of the teaching transaction which, when dealt with skillfully, promotes conditions for

needs are satisfied, and the whole learning situation becomes more attractive and satisfying. It is proposed that many classroom-control practices presently advocated and used are teacher reactions to children's inappropriate actions. When children act in inappropriate ways, teachers react to correct the behavior. The revised way of viewing the task of classroom management is for teachers to act—to create conditions within the group and the group's environment so that children willingly cooperate and exercise self-control.

The authors assume that children, to a much greater degree than adults, will choose to act appropriately, will cooperate, will recognize the necessity for reasonable school policies, will recognize and face individual and group problems (and solve them through intelligent action), if they are given the opportunity to do so. Of course, it is not expected that children can or will act appropriately if conditions do not foster this behavior; teachers must create favorable conditions.

Most important, it is assumed that when children misbehave and are difficult to control, the fault lies not in the children, but in the fact that the management practices are inappropriate to the situation. This assumption does not imply that if teachers use appropriate practices they will have classes where all the children behave as desired all the time. It is quite the opposite. Teachers can expect children, at times, to resist school standards, engage in arguments, have frequent conflicts, and otherwise act in disruptive ways. When these situations do arise, they can be handled by using practices that increase cooperation and group integration. In other words, the problems are handled constructively—in such a way that satisfaction with the classroom situation is increased, and conditions are improved.

While persuasion, cajoling, interpersonal influence, and direct order appear to be the major means for controlling classroom behavior, there are other methods. There is substantial evidence that employing group methods of classroom management have far more effective results than have been achieved to date. Successful teachers now use group methods, although most do not know that they do so. Use of group methods means that teachers have enabled the classroom group to achieve a substantial degree of unity. A cohesive group exercises considerable control over individual behavior. If the group resists, individuals are affected. If the classroom groups are committed to "good" behavior, and to achieving learning objectives, it follows, of course, that the majority of individual children will also be so committed. In essence then, the job of classroom management is gaining group commitment to cooperative behavior. The specific functions are to facilitate and maintain the group organization so it will cooperate willingly.



6. Analyze a lesson for the teacher's actions in relation to (1) instructional tasks and (2) management tasks. You may use a form on which to note the exact actions:

<i>Instructional Activities</i>	<i>Management Activities</i>

7. Describe an incident in which a teacher evaluated a *group* in a favorable way. Be sure it is not a favorable evaluation of individuals.

8. In a book on methods of teaching in the elementary school, locate the discussion of discipline or control. Critically analyze the position of the authors in comparison with the points of view discussed in the chapter under "Educational Approaches and Points of View."

9. In a rapidly changing society and in schools that are also changing, what is the state of traditional management practices? Are some outmoded? Are some still relevant? Cite examples.

10. List some current conditions in the schools with which you are acquainted that add to the increasing difficulty of management problems of teachers.

learning in the classroom and the best potential development of each child.

As an area in teacher training, it has had less attention than it deserves. Current points of view on discipline, control, and classroom climate are critically analyzed as a basis for understanding the position of this approach to classroom management.

The need for a sound, basic conceptual framework is explained. The rapid changes in society, with the accompanying unsettled and changing conditions in the schools, make an operational theory of classroom management imperative.

A formal organization of a classroom or school has requirements that must be recognized in order for it to function. These requirements are understanding the dynamics of collective behavior, the effects of individuals on the group, and the effects of groups on individuals. An analysis of the management tasks and the skill-acts of the teacher, which are related to the foregoing, are part of the definition of the management process.

A condensation of basic ideas is given as a framework for improving management practices in the classroom.

### For Further Study

1. Give your own definition of "children's behavior in the classroom organization."

2. What ideas about classroom management do you remember from your experiences as a student in elementary and secondary schools? Include those that you consider positive and desirable, and those you consider negative and undesirable.

3. Interview one or more teachers about using in their teaching the classroom-management ideas which they retain from their experiences as pupils.

4. Observe a child—or several children in the same learning situation—for the ability to shift perspective when a new idea is added. A new procedure for already established processes in math or a new way to study spelling words or other curriculum areas may be used for observation. Try to ascertain if the child understands the new idea, or the idea in a new framework. Several observations may be needed to see if the learner reverts to his former behavior or if he maintains the new approach.

5. From your observation or from teaching experience, describe an instance of either effective or ineffective handling of a human problem in the classroom. Include your perception of the teacher's action in relation to the human and environmental factors in the situation. What were the effects on the individual and his behavior and competence?

teacher's managerial practices upon the type of group which develops. Other factors also contribute to variability in group behavior. Among those cited are: grouping policies, curriculum and instructional organizational practices, and member influence upon fellow members.

Two major patterns, *facilitation* and *maintenance*, are proposed as classifications drawn from an analysis of problem behavior. *Facilitation* refers to management activities which promote individual and group development, and *maintenance* refers to the activities which restore or maintain effective working and learning conditions. The two major categories are not mutually exclusive, they do overlap.

Both facilitative and maintenance practices posit a dynamic system of relationships. Teachers' responses to changes and variations in the classroom are conceived as measures to maintain a changing equilibrium.

Contrasted with such usual concepts of discipline as something a teacher does to a pupil, the present approach sees the function of classroom management as making changes in a situation so that individuals may act differently. Severe emotional problems of individual children require special approaches and personnel that are not considered here.

Facilitative acts include both the initiating or creating of good classroom conditions, and the dealing with less than fully cooperative groups that are already formed.

Suggestions are made for starting a new class at the beginning of a year, and for dealing with a confrontation when pupils are hostile and aggressive.

Skilled management practices will not eliminate all problems. Problems can make possible the increasing of cooperation, unity, and satisfaction as teachers gain skills in understanding and using facilitative and management activities.

The objective of this chapter is to begin to set the foundations for a conceptual framework, which as it develops should be able to

1. Help teachers understand some of the basic causes (the *why*) of behavior problems in the classroom organization.
2. Enable teachers to diagnose behavior problems in the classroom group.
3. Make human behavior in the classroom organization more predictable.
4. Improve the ability of teachers to organize and direct the human affairs of the classroom more effectively.

An adequate systematic frame of reference for a general theory of classroom management should be able to explain and predict, as well as influence. It should also incorporate results from scientific studies and provide a basis for further explorations. It is recognized

priate actions. From an analysis of common problems of classroom behavior, patterns of teachers' classroom-management activities can be grouped and classified objectively.

## Identification of Typical Problems

Over the past ten years, the authors have collected incidents from teachers describing classroom management problems. The incidents teachers report are often very similar in nature; this indicates not only that teachers share similar problems, but that children in classroom organizations also experience similar conditions. There are striking similarities among classroom groups in their characteristic styles of behavior, regardless of the grade level. Since teachers describe the same kind of troublesome reactions year after year, it is obvious that no gains have been made in providing teachers with conceptual and operational skills to enable them to apply appropriate measures to problems of classroom management.

Hundreds of descriptions of classroom management problems, which in one way or another affect the learning and instructional processes, are unmanageable. Although the sources of management problems differ, outward manifestations of behavior are limited in number. Children talk at inappropriate times, they delay work processes, engage in disputes and conflicts, react with indifference and lack of interest, and fail to follow prescribed procedures. They quarrel, fight, resist, protest, and fail to cooperate. Of course, many class groups exhibit such behavior to a very limited degree, but when management problems occur, they are concerned with one or more of the problems described.

Incidents describing children's reactions must be categorized so that the more fundamental dimensions of the behavior become visible. To produce a larger perspective, problems need to be classified by some system. Figure 1 places behavioral descriptions into large areas, according to their distinguishing characteristics. Although each area represents a constellation of factors, major sources of difficulty can be determined and treatment prescribed.

The major purpose of identifying common classroom-management problems is to determine precisely what the job of classroom management is. A second objective is to clarify the source or cause of the problems and develop understanding as to why children behave as they do in the classroom organization. The major sources of management problems are examined first, because management functions can then be derived from problem sources.

## Problem Analysis

To each child, the classroom group is important as a means by which he can balance the varying pressures and strains placed upon

that perhaps the management aspect of teaching must wait for much investigation and research before a truly scientific frame of reference can evolve. But unproved theories often show the way to improved practices and more effective analysis and research. Certainly there is a clear need for the development of classroom management theory and improved management practices if the human potential in present classrooms is to be tapped more effectively and human capabilities extended to the fullest.

Before even a beginning can be made in developing a systematic conceptual frame of reference for classroom management, the job itself must be clarified and fitted into an organized picture of the total teaching transaction. Specifically, if the framework is to be useful in improving classroom management practices, the types of activities teachers perform in managing the human affairs of the classroom organization must be objectively classified.

## THE SCOPE AND FUNCTION OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

It has been emphasized repeatedly that the area of teaching involving the management of human affairs is possibly the most important aspect of teaching, because everything else teachers do depends upon how well they perform in this area. The management aspect of teaching involves establishing and maintaining an internal environment which encourages the release of human potential, and which enables children working together in classroom groups to perform effectively and efficiently to attain educational objectives. In other words, it is the management dimension of teaching that makes it possible for individuals to make their own best contributions to achieve and attain educational goals. Clearly, teachers cannot perform in this dimension of teaching if they do not know what functions are needed to develop this environment, or understand the many factors which affect this area of operations.

One way to determine what the job of classroom management entails is to make an analysis of problem behavior commonly occurring in elementary classrooms.

An analysis of the kinds of problems which occur when children work together and associate regularly in the formally organized class group provides a means for determining the various kinds of controls needed. (Determining the various kinds of controls does not mean identifying techniques which make children follow orders; it means determining the form of influence which enables children to satisfy their needs and achieve their goals.) The analysis of problem behavior includes locating sources of trouble, noting the signals which indicate that all is not well, and defining appro-

when they talk out of turn; act in ways which disrupt the normal work procedures; engage in clowning or rebellious activities.

5. Easily distracted;  
prone to work  
stoppage and  
imitative behavior

The group reacts with upset, excited, or disorderly behavior to interruptions, distractions, or constant grievances, as:

when group is interrupted by monitors, visitors, a change in weather;

when members constantly have grievances relating to others, lessons, rules, policies or practices they believe are unfair; and when settlements are demanded before work proceeds.

6. Low morale and  
hostile, resistant,  
or aggressive  
reactions

The class members engage in subtle hostile, aggressive behavior which creates slowdowns and work stoppages, as:

when materials are misplaced, pencils break, chairs upset;

when books, money, lunches are temporarily lost;

when there are constant requests for assignments to be repeated and explained;

when children constantly complain about behavior of others with no apparent loss of friendship;

when children accuse authority figures of unfair practices and delay classwork by making claims.

7. Inability to adjust  
to environmental  
change

The class reacts inappropriately to such situations, as:

when a substitute takes over;

when normal routines are changed;

when new members transfer into the class,

when stress situations cause inappropriate reactions.

---

him by the nature of school work, the teacher, and the rules and regulations of the school organization. Classroom groups differ greatly, however, in their ability to provide this kind of satisfaction. They do not all provide a stabilizing force. They differ significantly in degrees of unity, patterns of interaction, the development of group norms, and in the ways they adjust to withstand pressures and frustrations. What are these differences in classroom organiza-

FIGURE 1

# CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS IN TERMS OF BEHAVIORAL DESCRIPTIONS

Distinguishing Characteristics	Behavior Descriptions
1. Lack of unity	<p>The class lacks unity and conflicts occur between individuals and subgroups, as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>when groups split; argumentative over competitive situations such as games; boys against girls;</li> <li>when groups split by cliques, minority groups;</li> <li>when group takes sides on issues or breaks into subgroups; when hostility and conflict constantly arise among members and create an unpleasant atmosphere.</li> </ul>
2. Nonadherence to behavioral standards and work procedures	<p>The class responds with noisy, talkative, disorderly behavior to situations which have established standards for behaving, as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>when group is entering or leaving room or changing activities; lining up; cleaning up; going to auditorium;</li> <li>when group is working in ability groups; engaging in committee work;</li> <li>when group is completing study assignments; receiving assignments; correcting papers; handling work materials;</li> <li>when group is engaged in discussion, sharing, planning.</li> </ul>
3. Negative reactions to individual members	<p>The class becomes vocal or actively hostile toward one or more class members, as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>when group does not accept individuals and derides, ignores, or ridicules children who are different;</li> <li>when group reacts negatively to members who deviate from group code; to those who thwart group's progress; or when a member's behavior upsets or puzzles members of the class.</li> </ul>
4. Class approval of misbehavior	<p>The class approves and supports individuals, as:</p>

described. Force or disciplinary procedures only intensify the condition. The management task is to undertake a pattern of activities that will increase unity and develop cooperative working relationships. Chapter 4 discusses the processes by which unity may be developed.

*Nonadherence to Behavioral Standards and Work Procedures.* A characteristic distinction of many classroom groups is a tendency to ignore classroom standards. This behavior, of course, is highly visible and teachers need no clues to assist them in determining what is occurring. There is a need, however, to understand why children fail to adhere to standards which they apparently prescribe for themselves. Locating causes for this behavior provides a means for determining appropriate managerial actions. The behavior of both teachers and pupils is governed by norm-regulated conduct. Much of the norm-regulated conduct in the elementary school is not formally stated. Usually the expected behavior is generally known in the culture, and is remarked upon only when there is deviation from the school norms. The emphasis of school norms is upon "appropriate behavior" when working, playing, moving in corridors, and the like. How pupils should act and conduct themselves constitutes the normative aspect of their behavior. On the other hand, functional routines are usually regulated by prescribed instructions, rules, or policies. For example, a set of instructions may relate to conduct in the cafeteria. These instructions may specify that the children line up by grades, that they wait quietly until they can walk through the line and secure their food, that they will be dismissed as a group at a certain time, provided they have finished eating and have behaved properly. Implicit norms are involved also. The norm aspect may include not talking with a mouth full of food, not throwing food, or not taking large bites and racing to finish eating.

In spite of the fact that there is a solid code of norms permeating the educational system which refer to a number of points including work, punctuality, conflict, cooperation, and obedience, teachers have been exhorted repeatedly to let children make their own standards. Statements such as the following are common in the literature.

When children take part in formulating rules and regulations about behavior, they are more likely to accept and adhere to their own behavioral standards than if the standards or rules are made up and enforced by the teacher . . . . Children should set up the rules and standards for the classroom and agree on how they should be observed . . . . At the beginning of the year children can be helped to formu-



tional behavior that can be predicted and used to improve teacher effectiveness in the management dimension of teaching?

*Lack of Unity.* A distinctive characteristic of some classroom groups is a lack of unity and an unwillingness to cooperate. Classes which are low in cohesiveness have no clearly defined stable system of actions and reactions to provide a frame of reference which may be utilized for predictive purposes of each individual in the group. In other words, a group lacking unity provides no stabilizing force to sustain individual members. A group low in cohesiveness is negatively valued by members. In any work group there is a certain amount of pressure and stress. A unified group can operate under conditions of internal and external stress, but a poorly unified group cannot function with any degree of effectiveness because cooperative effort is required for individuals to function in face-to-face situations. Even when it appears on the surface that work is proceeding in an orderly fashion, lack of unity produces a situation which prevents individuals from performing to the full extent of their capabilities. Energies are dissipated upon problems of conflicting relationships. When unity is lacking, the group does not produce positive reinforcing values for members. They become dissatisfied and discontented, which further lowers unity. It is difficult to assess the degree of unity in a highly cohesive group, but it is fairly easy to determine when a group is not integrated. These are symptoms which make it apparent that a group lacks unity.

1. Class split by cliques.
2. One or more isolated subgroups.
3. Poor communication and a lack of common norms.
4. Hostile competition rather than friendly cooperation.
5. Some individuals derided by others in the group.
6. Tattling, complaining, and name calling.
7. Frequent disputes, conflicts, and inability to play together.
8. Work processes interrupted by complaints and petty grievances.

Elementary classroom groups on the whole tend to have some degree of unity. The exceptions are classes which have been grouped into low and high sections, thus creating a low to high status hierarchy. A low status group usually lacks unity. Such groups may exhibit additional symptoms such as apathy, indifference, and little interaction between members in the group. Also, a low status group may resort to scapegoating, or to exhibiting very hostile, aggressive behavior outside the classroom situation.

There are numerous other reasons why a class group may lack unity. The important concept for teachers to understand is that a group lacking unity predictably will react in many of the ways

ally exists. The procedures and processes for gaining adherence to already established rules, policies, and norms of conduct are discussed fully in a later chapter.

*Negative Reactions to Individual Members.* A large number of incidents reporting classroom-management problems describe interactions in which the classroom group appears to pick on some individuals. Sometimes classes are characterized as having a tendency to be nonaccepting of a few individuals. A much fewer number of incidents report groups which actually deride and ridicule a member of the class. In the first instance, the behavior teachers perceive as nonaccepting, or picking on a member, is actually the means by which groups exert pressure on members to conform and *belong* to the group. Cohesive groups develop norms, and when members deviate from these norms, group members tend to communicate directly to those individuals who do not conform as desired and expected. It is believed that members of children's groups do not consciously deviate from group expectancies. They have not developed their social perceptions to the degree achieved by others in the group, thus, they do not know what is expected by others. When teachers prevent the group from communicating to the few who seem to be deviating, they are, in fact, increasing the likelihood that eventually these youngsters will be rejected by their classmates. The condition of nonacceptance or rejection of individuals is one that is much less visible than the condition where the group is exerting pressure on individuals to conform and maintain membership. Rejected or nonaccepted individuals are ignored; group members do not communicate with them, nor do they pick on them.

An interesting paradox exists in education relating to *belonging* and *conformity*. On one hand, group unity, acceptance of members, and belonging are all extolled, on the other hand, group conformity is deplored. The fact is, as groups increase in unity, they exert increased pressures on members to conform. Obviously, belonging and conformity go together. This inconsistency is caused, in part, by imprecise use of terms. Conformity does not necessarily mean a lack or loss of individuality. In fact, it is quite possible for groups to exert forces in the direction of inducing conformity to a norm which values highly individuality and which prizes individuals who are different. In other words, conformity does not mean adhering to a common pattern. It does mean, however, a process of bringing into harmony and agreement—a very necessary condition for people who must work together day after day in a face-to-face situation.

The tendency of some class groups to deride, ridicule, and persecute an individual in the class is often interpreted as group non-

late a class code to be put on a permanent chart at the front of the classroom . . . . Children should chart their own guidelines for living and working together.

The methods advocated for assisting children in establishing their own behavioral standards have the following major components.

1. They unintentionally try to manipulate children. This occurs because the process has children formulate and supposedly agree upon standards of conduct. The method is one of exacting from children their ideas of what the most desirable conduct is for specific situations; it requires that the children themselves make the decisions regarding "best" conduct, even though the behavior desired is already implicitly or explicitly prescribed.
2. Even in very young children resistance is evoked because they soon perceive that the process of establishing their own standards is, in reality, no more than a request for them to restate the behavior already established and enforced by the school.
3. Statements of standards, or standard charts, usually are no more than a list of stereotyped responses. Even primary children soon learn to give the responses they know the teacher expects and wishes. Statements as, "What should we do in this particular situation?" receive answers such as, "We should be quiet and not talk."
4. Standards for conduct often imply a threat for nonconformity. This is revealed by the fact that in the process of establishing or discussing standards, children state what should be done, then they include ideas about how nonconforming members should be handled. For example, to the standard, "We should be quiet and not talk," someone often adds, "And those who talk should stay after school!"
5. Present standards for best behavior usually become rules, punishable for infraction, rather than objectives or targets which children agree they will try to reach. Because children perceive standards as a set of rules already in operation, they resist measures to induce adherence. Also, classroom groups frequently establish their own behavioral norms of conduct and induce conformity to these norms which do not correspond with those of the school.

The fact that there are implicit norms for regulating behavioral conduct in the school and classrooms, plus an already prescribed functional order stipulating routine behavior patterns, results in making the process of "developing standards" a hypocritical, indirect method of coercion. Children comply with the process, i.e., they go through the meaningless procedure, but they very frequently resist conforming to the standards they supposedly enact. Effective patterns of management control in dealing with this common condition can make appropriate use of current social science knowledge and employ methods more appropriate to the situation as it actu-

as the following to improve conditions and establish more satisfying relationships.

1. Class members approve and applaud the disruptive actions of one or a few members. Sometimes the approval is not openly expressed, but if some signs of disapproval are not evident then it can be assumed that the group is approving the misbehavior of one or a few members.
2. Some members of the class engage in heated disputes which create a pleasant distraction for others who do not take sides, but give evidence of being interested, excited, and applauding spectators. Although these disputes may have some basis in fact, more often they are friendly engagements which are diversionary in nature and serve to distract the teacher and the group from the work of the class.
3. One child may rebel by refusing to follow accustomed procedures, or by openly disobeying the teacher, or by flaunting rules of accepted social conduct. The actions initiated by the student make it necessary for the teacher to take counteractions. A group possessing unity and a stable pattern of interactions will not condone rebellious acts because this kind of behavior upsets regular processes. A satisfied work group will attempt at first to bring the deviant into line. However, when individuals experience stress or an uncomfortable feeling of pressure and dissatisfaction, one way of restoring a more satisfactory state of affairs is to rebel. When for some reason the group is unable to take concerted action, usually one or perhaps two individuals act for the group as a whole. The rebel (or rebels) are fully aware that they have solid group support (if not approval) for their rebellious acts. The actions serve to solidify the group as well as reduce the level of frustration. The rebel is performing a service for the group which it is unable to perform for itself. Of course, rebellious outbreaks of this nature create a slowdown or stoppage of the regular instructional schedule, and create a severe management problem for the teacher.
4. When communication and interaction in class groups are somewhat restricted, this results in lowered perception and understanding between various members of the group. A struggle is created to improve the situation. Again, when the group does not take collective action, i.e., when members as a whole remain quiet and do not speak out, very often one or more individuals attempt to break through barriers restricting interaction. They make remarks at inappropriate times, they clown, they question unnecessarily, and in various ways stimulate class group interaction. These individuals are supported by the groups because they serve to improve group integration and functioning.

acceptance of a member, or the inability of an individual to gain acceptance. Most often teachers perceive the situation as one in which the individual needs help in gaining group acceptance. For example, in one case an overweight child, who otherwise had a pleasant personality, was made the object of ridicule and persecution by his classmates. When a number of teachers were asked what they would do if such a situation developed in their classrooms, the majority answered they would send the child to the school nurse or otherwise do something about his weight. A fewer number said they would give him responsibilities (such as make him chairman of a committee) so he could earn the respect of others in the group. Only one person answered that he would try and find out what was wrong with the class.

When a child becomes an object toward whom others in the class direct ridicule, scorn, and abuse, the problem lies not in the child but in the group. When a group makes a scapegoat of a member, it means that the group is experiencing serious difficulties which are causing strong feelings of aggression and hostility. Often the cause of the difficulty stems from an authoritarian figure (most likely the teacher). When the group has no direct outlet in aggressive acts directed toward the authoritarian figure, the members may vent their frustrations on a person in the class who is somewhat different and who seems unlikely to retaliate. Having a scapegoat serves to keep aggression within the group and prevents open rebellion against the power figure.

Another group might experience the same conditions but give in completely to the helplessness generated by hostile feelings. Such a group would react with complete apathy and indifference to all that occurred in the classroom. Outside the classroom, however, feelings might be vented by fighting, or destruction of school property. It is possible that the numerous acts of vandalism in schools are caused by youngsters who have no direct outlet for venting their aggressions, so they attempt to destroy the place where their hostilities are aroused.

*Class Approval of Misbehavior.* Individuals in the school classroom have no way of changing the conditions under which they study and work except by resorting to collective actions, or by giving mutual support to individuals who act for the group. Members of formally organized groups are always seeking to stabilize relationships. Adjustment processes are continuous within the group to maintain and restore social-psychological balance. When a class group is blocked or frustrated because social needs are not met, problem-solving or adaptive techniques are employed to reduce the frustration and restore equilibrium.

It is fairly common for classroom groups to enact behavior such

ence to instructional processes. To a large degree, this kind of behavior arises from anxiety which develops when there is incongruity between expectations and the actual classroom situation. Most healthy children have a desire to communicate with others and secure validation of ideas and perceptions. The psychological well-being of members is dependent upon this validation of thoughts, feelings, and ideas. When children have been together for a period of time and have not been able to achieve a common definition of the total situation, i.e., they have not been able to become a group and share perceptions, this condition gives rise to discomfort and anxiety. A generalized feeling of uncertainty prevails because individuals have no way to confirm their perceptions. These groupings differ from classes which lack unity in that the members would normally develop unified, cooperative relationships if something within the situation did not prevent this from occurring. Some groups, because of an imposed structure, or other factors, have difficulty uniting unless they are helped to do so. In the case of groups which react negatively to some of the members, there is a solidarity of sorts because members have worked out a method for relieving frustrations. On the other hand, groups that are easily distracted by the most common disruptions—noises outside the classroom, changes in weather, and so forth, are suffering from uncertainty and anxiety; they have not developed a pattern of activities that serve to reduce the discomfort this condition produces. Moreover, the reason they have not been able to develop as a group acts to prevent members from working out ways of adapting to unsatisfactory conditions.

*Individuals may act to reduce the discomfort generated by anxiety and caused by inability to establish some sort of predictability in group interactions. Class members, for example, may spontaneously, one by one, approach the teacher with questions regarding work procedures that previously have been clearly and carefully explained. They may exhibit other contagious behavior; that is, there may be an epidemic of coughing, book dropping, or chair tipping. This is not in any way a deliberate attempt to disrupt work procedures but is a spontaneous outbreak occurring almost simultaneously, for no apparent reason.*

The common explanation to account for easily distracted groups is that lessons are not interesting or well planned, and that assignments are not clear. This is rarely the case. Usually, the work is not only well planned, but is highly organized. Opportunities for effective group development and opportunities for the group to share common expectations are so few that there is a generalized feeling of uncertainty, with an unclear cause for the feeling generated. Any distraction to upset the well-organized routine is a way of coping with the situation. It is possible to predict that easily

When groups approve the behavior of one or more children who are misbehaving and disrupting the regular classroom work schedule, teachers usually perceive the situation as one where they have problem children. They believe that if these youngsters were to leave, the control problem would leave with them. As many teachers have discovered, when the so-called trouble-makers were transferred, or when they moved away, behavior problems of another kind arise, or else other youngsters began behaving in the same way as the youngsters who left.

Viewing this condition as one caused by the behavior of one or more individuals who are natural trouble-makers, reflects an underlying belief that some youngsters are, inherently, disruptive influences. This way of perceiving the situation also causes teachers to assume that if the trouble-makers can be controlled, the class as a whole will settle down and put forth the necessary efforts to reach educational objectives. Because the class approved and applauded the misbehavior of a few individuals, it is clear that the trouble is caused by conditions which the group is protesting and resisting. Students deprived of opportunities to satisfy important needs, arising from the fact that they are in a formally organized setting, behave in certain predictable ways. One way class groups react to unsatisfactory conditions in the work group is to applaud and approve individual misbehaviors. Present methods of influence and control used by teachers in such situations must be modified and changed to meet the demands of the situation. The problem lies within the group and not in individuals. In many cases, the use of problem solving to improve the working situation will achieve desired results. Most important, however, is to recognize that the problem involves the total group membership rather than merely a few individuals.

*Anxious, Dependent, and Easily Distracted Groups.* The distinguishing characteristics of some groups are their dependency and their inability to withstand distractions. Morale is very low in groups suffering from anxiety caused by feelings of uncertainty. Morale is a term used to indicate member spontaneity and a lack of group restraints. Members become very anxious and restrained in their actions when they do not know what sort of behavior is approved by other members and what is not. This state of affairs creates a generalized feeling of uncertainty, but the cause for these feelings remains unclear to group members.

Anxious, dependent groups are more prone to work stoppage caused by distractions than are other groups. A clearly visible characteristic of these groups is their tendency to be diverted from study and work on assignments by any occurrence not strictly routine. Another distinguishing characteristic is apathy and indiffer-

efforts of even the best teachers. At present, when teachers have exhausted all their persuasive techniques, they must resort to threatening and punitive measures which, of course, only make the situation worse.

Many times, in small schools where the composition of such a class cannot be divided into several class groupings, a class of children will establish a pattern of aggressive behavior that continues year after year and dissipates the energies of a great many teachers. This kind of group gains a reputation for being "bad"; frequently it sets itself apart from other classes in the school, and seems to enjoy the status it has achieved for being the worst class in the school.

There is some scattered evidence indicating that groups distinguished by these characteristics are subject to sudden changes in behavior. They work peacefully for a time, then suddenly become highly resistant and aggressive, defying all attempts to get them to return to the regular work schedule. They may turn on one another with accusations and name calling, while at the same time exhibiting a good deal of solidarity and unity. An individual in the group, however, depends upon the group to provide him with the means by which he can participate in group processes and relieve pressures directed toward him by the teacher or school. Therefore, because the group acts as a stabilizing force, the apparent differences within the group are not real differences; they act as work stoppages.

At other times, members of these groups may slow down the regular learning activities by acting as if the assignments are not clear, the concepts too difficult, or by reciting grievances. Again, classwork is interrupted and delayed because members claim they lack supplies, their pencils are broken, or other strategies are employed to disrupt the regular class program of study. If threatened, they tell the teacher, "You can't do that to us!" Just as suddenly as these outbreaks occur, these groups may become cooperative for a time.

Groups having these characteristics require an unbelievably high proportion of teacher time and energy just to manage the outbreaks. Classes such as these are real trouble spots in the school, and efforts by teachers to change conditions are likely to be vigorously and shrewdly challenged by group members.

In such cases it seems that members are achieving a high degree of satisfaction (rather than actual unity) while in the process of idling, playing, wasting materials, and generally undermining the learning program.

Causes for such negative, unpredictable, and concerted action originally may have developed from the imposed group structure, or from teacher practices which prevented the group from develop-



distracted groups behave in this way during the early period of their association, but that later they tend to conflict, and there is disunity, as well as apathy and indifference toward lessons and assignments. In other words, groups which are characteristically easily distracted do not for long continue to operate in this particular state of discomfort. Faced with this ambiguous situation, the group members eventually develop some common expectations out of which some stability in relationships develops. The characteristic pattern of behavior which emerges is very likely to be highly resistant to teachers' instructional efforts. If, however, the restrictions on group development are too great, the group behavior will tend toward conflict and ultimate dissolution of any attempts to establish cooperative relationships.

As stated before, anxious, dependent, and easily distracted groups are very low in morale. Research by Lippitt and White indicates that morale is closely related to the practices used by the group leader. A leader of a group who dictates in detail what, how, and when things shall be done provides a minimum of freedom of action and a heightened dependence upon the leader. Freedom of action may be interpreted as freedom of group members to interact with each other and develop values in common.

It may be concluded that anxiety and the tendency to be distracted easily may be reduced by allowing for group development and providing identity for the group.

Direct attempts to change anxious, dependent, and easily distracted groups most likely will be unsuccessful since the problem stems from the internal conditions within the group. Teachers have been trained to look for individuals contributing to classroom-management problems. Therefore, they often focus on a few children (who for some reason attract more attention), and single them out as children who "do not pay attention." The concern of teachers to locate individuals who are sources of problems results in a failure to observe that the class group as a whole is anxious, easily distracted, and highly dependent. When teachers find their groups have these distinguishing characteristics, their efforts must be directed toward making changes in classroom organization. These changes involve developing a group structure that will reduce anxiety and enable youngsters to direct their energies toward learning and working on educational tasks.

*Overt Acts of Hostility and Aggression.* It is not common for members of elementary classroom groups to band together and openly exhibit hostile, aggressive, resistant behavior. Usually when the situation is unsatisfactory, elementary school children resort to covert acts of protest and resistance. However, there are times when classroom group members, as a unit, do openly defy and resist the

children are assigned to the group, some well-liked members of the class leave, or some children are reassigned to another class. Interruptions of the daily schedule, announcements of a new school policy, a new rule, or any emergency situation may affect a group which is in a state of delicate balance, and not firmly organized as an efficiently functioning system.

Groups which do not easily adjust to change may not exhibit such characteristics as a low degree of unity, nonadherence to standards, negative reactions to individuals, anxious, dependent, or easily distracted behavior. On the surface, these class groups may appear to have unity and reasonably good interpersonal relations. However, when such groups are notable for making necessary adjustments to conditions requiring change, it is often the case that these groups are expending much energy in maintaining group integration. When group organizations appear to act inappropriately in times of change, crisis, or emergency, it can be assumed that members perceive that group unity is threatened. Therefore, members respond, not to the situation creating the change, but to conditions which they perceive require restoring.

Chapter 10 provides examples and discusses a number of actions teachers can take to strengthen the class system and to reduce the effects created by sudden changes in the environment.

## Factors Causing Variations in Behavior

Classroom organizations, or class groupings, resort to multiple mechanisms to maintain themselves. In an effectively functioning classroom system, the forces determining the behavior of members are not dependent upon the teacher as a motivational source, nor upon individuals singly. There is a cumulative pattern of behavior which develops and exerts pressure in certain directions upon members. With or without teacher assistance, most classroom groups develop and maintain equilibrium within the system by making adjustments and adaptations to the situation in which they must work and operate. These adaptations and adjustments may be thought of as ways class organizations create psychological bonds to hold the groups together. Although the class organization can adjust and adapt to the school and classroom conditions so as to maintain themselves as a social system, there is a significant relationship between the managerial practices employed by teachers and the kinds of groups which will develop. Also, there is a relation between the school organizational practices and the characteristics which class groups display.

Although it may seem to the casual observer that the group reactions distinguishing some groups from others are somewhat similar in all categories, there are distinguishing variations in each

ing and maintaining itself by more acceptable processes. After a time, however, this behavior becomes a pattern that continues even after the original cause no longer exists. Often there are members in these groups who can and do incite members to aggressive, hostile acts. However, it cannot be said that the cause of this behavior springs from the composition of the group, or from the behavior of a few trouble-makers. Certain group conditions are the likely causes, and it requires skilled managerial techniques to change an established pattern of overt aggressive acts. Very forceful methods can at times change the surface behavior. However, force and threat will not motivate members of such groups to learn and achieve. The reason why the class group was organized in the first place, namely, to reach certain learning objectives, is lost. All energies are exhausted by the struggle to maintain control, on the one hand, and resist it on the other.

In these cases teachers must be concerned not so much with changing relationships within the classroom organization, but with changing the relationship between the group and its environment. Members of classes such as this develop their own way of interpreting the school environment. They interpret what the teachers say from a frame of reference which differs significantly from the frame of reference of the teachers. It is possible to consider the causes of this kind of group behavior as examples of disturbances in communication and ineffective teacher-group interactions.

Attempts to bring about changes in the attitudes and values which guide the behavior of members of such groups include presenting the groups with problems involving work relationships which lead group members to engage in a new kind of problem-solving behavior which, in turn, leads the group toward improved interaction and toward adopting new behavior patterns.

Groups which develop hostile patterns of behavior also develop inappropriate norms for behaving in the school work situation. Changing these norms and patterns of behavior involves having the group plan new ways of acting in different situations. Agreeing upon new plans of action can lead these groups to adopt new norms and to change previously held attitudes and values.

*Inability to Adjust to Environmental Change.* Groups whose recurring behavioral patterns indicate that they do not adjust easily to change, differ from internal states which prevent them from adapting easily to new situations or conditions. As the term is used here, environmental change may be equated with situations involving some degree of stress. Changes in the environment may include a change in group leadership, i.e., the regular teacher is replaced by either a short-term or long-term substitute. A change situation may result from a change in group membership. New

ing and maintaining itself by more acceptable processes. After a time, however, this behavior becomes a pattern that continues even after the original cause no longer exists. Often there are members in these groups who can and do incite members to aggressive, hostile acts. However, it cannot be said that the cause of this behavior springs from the composition of the group, or from the behavior of a few trouble-makers. Certain group conditions are the likely causes, and it requires skilled managerial techniques to change an established pattern of overt aggressive acts. Very forceful methods can at times change the surface behavior. However, force and threat will not motivate members of such groups to learn and achieve. The reason why the class group was organized in the first place, namely, to reach certain learning objectives, is lost. All energies are exhausted by the struggle to maintain control, on the one hand, and resist it on the other.

In these cases teachers must be concerned not so much with changing relationships within the classroom organization, but with changing the relationship between the group and its environment. Members of classes such as this develop their own way of interpreting the school environment. They interpret what the teachers say from a frame of reference which differs significantly from the frame of reference of the teachers. It is possible to consider the causes of this kind of group behavior as examples of disturbances in communication and ineffective teacher-group interactions.

Attempts to bring about changes in the attitudes and values which guide the behavior of members of such groups include presenting the groups with problems involving work relationships which lead group members to engage in a new kind of problem-solving behavior which, in turn, leads the group toward improved interaction and toward adopting new behavior patterns.

Groups which develop hostile patterns of behavior also develop inappropriate norms for behaving in the school work situation. Changing these norms and patterns of behavior involves having the group plan new ways of acting in different situations. Agreeing upon new plans of action can lead these groups to adopt new norms and to change previously held attitudes and values.

*Inability to Adjust to Environmental Change.* Groups whose recurring behavioral patterns indicate that they do not adjust easily to change, differ from internal states which prevent them from adapting easily to new situations or conditions. As the term is used here, environmental change may be equated with situations involving some degree of stress. Changes in the environment may include a change in group leadership, i.e., the regular teacher is replaced by either a short-term or long-term substitute. A change situation may result from a change in group membership. New

what to do, but they soon learn that it is expected that their classes behave in certain ways. Consequently they act to meet the perceived expectations. They may perceive that classes are to be kept quiet and working at all times. When interaction among class members is restricted, this inhibits an open and natural development of the classroom group. Under these conditions, when something interrupts class work there is often considerable interaction, but it may be under conditions of tension and anxiety. Because of different methods of enforcing the restrictions against interaction (talking), some groups may unite and resist all teacher efforts to prevent talking. One strategy is to approve the misbehavior of one or more individuals, or there may be many grievances and complaints about others in the group, with no apparent decrease in group unity. The technique is one of causing disruption and creating a situation so that members must interact. When teachers manage to severely restrict members' interaction processes, the group as a whole may resort to scapegoating or to other inappropriate actions.

Another factor which may cause variations in behavior may come from the curriculum organization. There is a trend at present toward team teaching: children change from one teacher to another and from one group to another. It is surmised that the energies of a large number of children are deployed from performing to their potential because they must adjust to various organizational systems which never have time to develop and become stabilized. Also, these students must constantly adapt to different teachers and to their methods of interacting with class members. The values obtained by having students taught by subject-matter specialists may be negated in the long run by the effects caused by forcing them to adjust to multiple-group membership.

It is difficult in this kind of organization for children to identify with any particular grouping, yet it is in their first organized work groups that children confirm their perceptions of their own worth and identity in comparison with others. The more closely knit the group, the less likely there is to be interactional conflict and the continued necessity of redefining individual performance. Loosely knit groupings impede communication. They present unclear situations to individuals who are provided with few clues by which to test their own perceptions. They fail to provide individuals with a stable tie with the social world of work. In short, children, when they are required to shift from one organizational setting to another, are provided very little means for knowing the evaluations placed on behavior by others in the same setting. The influences affecting children in the school situation are not primarily those resulting from teacher-pupil interaction, as is now presumed; they are composed of interacting influences coming from the individuals

Morale may be related positively or negatively to group unity. High morale is usually characteristic of cohesive groups. If morale is lowered in a group and no attempts are made to restore it either through teacher or pupil efforts, group unity may disintegrate very quickly. Problems of human relationships develop, and these problems lower pupils' abilities and efforts to work on school tasks. Low morale leads to individual dissatisfaction with the classroom situation and tends to cause individuals to become either hostile and aggressive, or apathetic and indifferent to teachers' instructional efforts.

The over-all task of classroom management, then, is to create a smoothly functioning organization and a working environment which facilitates individual task performance and achievement. This management task, of course, is affected by the external environment in which the class organization must operate, and in most cases the teachers performing the management activities will have little or no power to influence these conditions. Teachers can, however, create a workable classroom organization and conditions conducive to the effective development of individual potential.

### Classification of Classroom-Management Functions

It does little good to tell teachers that they must have a knowledge of individuals and their needs, patience, and an understanding of how to "temper discipline with freedom," in order to successfully manage a classroom of children. Rather, what is needed is an objective, conceptual method of describing types of classroom-managerial activities in terms that have substance and operatinality.

Analysis of classroom-control problems makes it possible to be more specific about the functions of classroom management. Classroom management is not control in the usual sense of the word, nor is it doing something to individuals which develops self-discipline on the part of each child. Classroom management is coordinating and integrating the activities of the classroom system, and minimizing the difficulties which arise from the interaction patterns in the classroom organization. It is stabilizing work conditions in response to recurring disturbances of one kind or another.

On the basis of problem analyses, it is proposed that classroom management tasks be operationally classified into two major patterns of activities: facilitation and maintenance. This method of classification centers management processes on activities which facilitate individual and group development, and it focuses upon those activities which restore or maintain conditions conducive to effective work on learning tasks. It is not always possible in prac-

themselves, from their classroom group organization, and from teachers and their control practices.

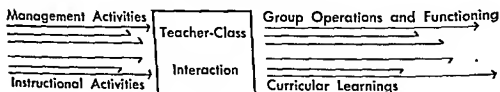
## MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS DERIVED FROM PROBLEMS

The formally organized classroom group, whether it is a self-contained classroom or a subject-matter grouping, can be conceived as a system which needs a set of inputs in order to develop, operate, and achieve the purposes for which it was organized. These inputs form the core from which classroom-management practices may be derived. The inputs, or patterns of management activities, are actions taken by teachers to develop unity, cooperation, morale, and in other ways facilitate group operations and functioning.

Teachers must be able to maintain an optimum balance between instructional practices and management practices. (See Figure 2.)

FIGURE 2

A DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF TWO MAJOR AREAS  
OF TEACHING, THEIR FUNCTIONING IN THE CLASSROOM,  
AND OUTCOMES



If children in the group find it necessary to devote their time and efforts to developing and maintaining unity, for example, individual members cannot devote the same time and effort on learning and completing instructional tasks. Unity, or solidarity, is not an effortless by-product of action within the classroom organization; it is accomplished at the cost of diverting individuals away from achieving learning objectives. Under continued pressure to achieve, and under frustration stemming from inability to develop a satisfactory work organization, classroom group members tend, in most cases, to heighten their solidarity. The time and effort required, however, reduces the ability of members to concentrate on educational tasks and to achieve individually at an optimum level.

Classroom morale and individual achievement are related positively. Educators recognize this fact but have been unable to relate it to group structure and organization or to the tendency of persons in a group situation to try to develop a satisfactory organization.

depends upon the involvement of members in the groups, the degree to which they are enabled to work out problems of importance to them, and the extent to which they are helped to make decisions about their own working conditions in the classroom.

However, there are other factors which account for the effectiveness of group processes in handling problems of classroom management. Whenever people work together in face-to-face situations, conflicts arise, morale fluctuates, and environmental changes sometimes create problems if groups are unable to adapt quickly. Thus, teachers, as part of their management functions, must help the system maintain itself by making constant adjustments to accommodate group needs, and by anticipating events which may affect individual and group functioning.

The nature of maintenance activities involves handling conflict, restoring morale, and helping groups meet or adapt to changes in their environments. Conflict can be handled constructively, i.e., when conflict arises the process of resolving the difficulty can further strengthen group cohesiveness and cooperation. Morale must be monitored, i.e., teachers must note and take action when stress situations create uncomfortable feelings of pressure and dissatisfaction. If steps are not taken to restore morale, groups themselves often take compensatory measures which vitally affect the instructional program. Fundamental patterns of classroom interaction must be re-established, and classroom groups need the help and skill of teachers if this is to be accomplished quickly and satisfactorily.

All classroom groups face constant internal and external interruptions and changes in the environment. Some of these changes require mere short-term readjustments in order to restore to stability the classroom system of relationships. Sometimes the changes require more carefully planned and anticipated actions, if the system is to be stabilized.

The major objective of both facilitative and maintenance practices is not the development of a static system of relationships which goes on, day after day, in the same controlled fashion. By taking facilitative actions and by maintaining and restoring the classrooms' internal system, teachers are seeking to build a dynamic stability. They make adjustments, readjustments, and changes to both internally generated problems and externally imposed pressures. By responding to variations in the classroom system and to changes in the environment, teachers try to maintain an equilibrium that is non-static.

To maintain and restore group functioning at the desired level, teachers must learn to recognize when maintenance practices are needed to stabilize conditions, as well as to know what actions to take. Section III focuses upon specific operational procedures as



tice to place all classroom-management functions neatly into these two major categories because there is considerable overlap, and the functions tend to coalesce. However, such a classification is a useful and realistic method for the analysis and understanding of classroom management problems and for developing appropriate operational procedures.

*Facilitative Tasks.* The behavioral descriptions of classroom-management problems identify some distinguishing characteristics of classroom groups which teachers are likely to find in their classes.

The distinguishing characteristics or patterns of behavior which fall into the facilitative category of classroom management are these:

1. Achieving cooperation and unity of effort.
2. Establishing standards and coordinating work procedures.
3. Improving conditions in the system by using problem solving.
4. Modifying or changing conditions in the classroom system.

Facilitating the classroom group so that it functions with a minimum of disruptive influences affecting it is a method of influence and control. However, this method does not resort to individual coercion, nor does it employ appeal or persuasion. It involves creating highly satisfactory conditions in the classroom system so that group needs are met. The processes or managerial patterns of activities include: developing a unified, cooperative system of relationships; helping the group establish its own standards as well as ways of meeting school rules and policies; enabling the group to solve many of its own operational problems; and, changing group properties which limit individual and organizational performance.

Facilitative practices use skill rather than power to handle problems which interfere with learning and instruction; they replace usual methods of control with a form of social influence. Techniques for facilitating and managing the classroom system are not well understood at present because most teachers are trained to direct their efforts entirely toward individuals, and not toward individuals as they operate in the classroom system. Facilitative practices place the professional skill of teachers at the disposal of the classroom groups involved. Specific techniques and methods are examined in Section II.

*Maintenance Tasks.* The facilitating functions of classroom management are directed toward developing an internal environment in the classroom system that will induce children to work at the level of their full capacities by utilizing social cooperation. The behavior of members in the classroom group does exert tremendous power over the individual. The efficacy of facilitative methods

his noises became too persistent and annoying would someone say, "Quiet down," or "That's too loud, Evan."

The point of this illustration is that healthy functioning classroom groups can tolerate a severely disturbed child, whose behavior is quite out of the ordinary, without suffering any noticeable slowdown in normal work activities.

The usual approach to such problems is to suggest steps teachers may take to change the individual. The view presented here is that teachers take steps to enable class groups to tolerate and accept individuals who behave in extraordinary ways because of emotional illness. It is not implied that teachers do nothing to help these individuals. However, the regular classroom teacher has neither the training, the time, nor a place to deal with severe psychological problems. Teachers who feel they must concentrate their efforts on children who are severely disturbed do so only at the expense of all other individuals and at the cost of less efficient group functioning. In this day and age it is necessary to enable classroom groups to accept and tolerate differences, rather than concentrating on changing individuals to make them more acceptable to the group.

Because the larger social order today is undergoing revolutionary changes, it can be expected that a very large number of children experience some emotional problems from time to time. Educational theory assumes that children bring these emotional problems to the classroom and that this accounts in large part for a number of behavioral reactions teachers encounter. Although it cannot be denied that events in homes, neighborhoods, and communities affect children attending elementary schools, it is not necessarily true that children bring these problems with them to the classroom, or that troubles from home, for example, account for the school's failure to help these individuals realize their potential. It is more likely that these background problems affect the performance of children to a minimal degree when the work situation is satisfactory and the classroom organization is healthy. On the other hand, it appears quite likely that youngsters will not be able to place these problems in the background when the classroom organization does not afford the group as a whole, or the individuals singly, chances to fulfill their tendencies and capacities for equilibrium and growth. When this state of affairs is not achieved, it is hypothesized that the emotional problems of average youngsters are maximized and extended. Children who have some problems and who also are deprived of opportunities to satisfy individual needs as well as needs arising from being a part of an organized system, do behave as expected. They fail to cooperate fully, often are disruptive, and they appear to be unwilling to accept responsibility for carrying out school tasks. It is more reasonable to predict that students behave as they do, not because of emotional difficulties which they bring with

well as developing skill in practicing and diagnosing conditions which require maintenance practices.

## Discipline as a Function of Classroom Management

Because of the present emphasis on discipline, some may suggest that disciplining individuals who do not conform is a distinct function of classroom management. The usual concept of discipline involves control and change of individual behavior rather than creating changes in the environment so that individuals can meet their own needs by devoting their energies to the accomplishment of learning objectives. The idea of teachers disciplining individuals as part of their management function represents a conventional view of classroom management. There is the inherent assumption that what teachers do to individuals will bring about desired changes in behavior. The present approach views the functions of classroom management as the process of making changes in the group organizational classroom situation so that individuals willingly cooperate and develop their own organizational controls.

It is recognized that there are children in schools today who have very severe emotional problems which are crippling to them. They cannot be viewed as discipline problems, although their behavior may be disruptive if the class group cannot learn to accept and tolerate them (just as they might any crippled or *different* youngsters). In most cases, healthy classroom groups can accept and tolerate the behavior of emotionally disturbed individuals. For example, Evan, a severely disturbed child, was transferred to a fourth grade class pending the time he could be placed in a special room for emotionally handicapped children. The transfer to the fourth grade was necessary because Evan's previous class was in a constant state of disruption because of his behavior. Upon entering his new class for the first time, Evan immediately slid out of his seat and scooted up and down the rows of tables on his hands and knees, while making shrill, high-pitched, squeaking noises. The teacher and class viewed his behavior in silence for a time. The teacher then said to the class, "He can't help it. Do you think we can go on with our work and not let his behavior bother us?" The class said they could and continued with their work without seeming to be the least disturbed by the squeaks or the scooting movements. At recess time the children, whose turn it was to help new class members become acquainted with the school and school procedures, took Evan in hand just as they did any newcomer. Surrounded by other children, he behaved acceptably during the recess period.

Evan stayed with the class for three months. He stopped crawling around on the floor but continued to make odd sounds. Only when

his noises became too persistent and annoying would someone say, "Quiet down," or "That's too loud, Evan."

The point of this illustration is that healthy functioning classroom groups can tolerate a severely disturbed child, whose behavior is quite out of the ordinary, without suffering any noticeable slowdown in normal work activities.

The usual approach to such problems is to suggest steps teachers may take to change the individual. The view presented here is that teachers take steps to enable class groups to tolerate and accept individuals who behave in extraordinary ways because of emotional illness. It is not implied that teachers do nothing to help these individuals. However, the regular classroom teacher has neither the training, the time, nor a place to deal with severe psychological problems. Teachers who feel they must concentrate their efforts on children who are severely disturbed do so only at the expense of all other individuals and at the cost of less efficient group functioning. In this day and age it is necessary to enable classroom groups to accept and tolerate differences, rather than concentrating on changing individuals to make them more acceptable to the group.

Because the larger social order today is undergoing revolutionary changes, it can be expected that a very large number of children experience some emotional problems from time to time. Educational theory assumes that children bring these emotional problems to the classroom and that this accounts in large part for a number of behavioral reactions teachers encounter. Although it cannot be denied that events in homes, neighborhoods, and communities affect children attending elementary schools, it is not necessarily true that children bring these problems with them to the classroom, or that troubles from home, for example, account for the school's failure to help these individuals realize their potential. It is more likely that these background problems affect the performance of children to a minimal degree when the work situation is satisfactory and the classroom organization is healthy. On the other hand, it appears quite likely that youngsters will not be able to place these problems in the background when the classroom organization does not afford the group as a whole, or the individuals singly, chances to fulfill their tendencies and capacities for equilibrium and growth. When this state of affairs is not achieved, it is hypothesized that the emotional problems of average youngsters are maximized and extended. Children who have some problems and who also are deprived of opportunities to satisfy individual needs as well as needs arising from being a part of an organized system, do behave as expected. They fail to cooperate fully, often are disruptive, and they appear to be unwilling to accept responsibility for carrying out school tasks. It is more reasonable to predict that students behave as they do, not because of emotional difficulties which they bring with

well as developing skill in practicing and diagnosing conditions which require maintenance practices.

## Discipline as a Function of Classroom Management

Because of the present emphasis on discipline, some may suggest that disciplining individuals who do not conform is a distinct function of classroom management. The usual concept of discipline involves control and change of individual behavior rather than creating changes in the environment so that individuals can meet their own needs by devoting their energies to the accomplishment of learning objectives. The idea of teachers disciplining individuals as part of their management function represents a conventional view of classroom management. There is the inherent assumption that what teachers do to individuals will bring about desired changes in behavior. The present approach views the functions of classroom management as the process of making changes in the group organizational classroom situation so that individuals willingly cooperate and develop their own organizational controls.

It is recognized that there are children in schools today who have very severe emotional problems which are crippling to them. They cannot be viewed as discipline problems, although their behavior may be disruptive if the class group cannot learn to accept and tolerate them (just as they might any crippled or *different* youngsters). In most cases, healthy classroom groups can accept and tolerate the behavior of emotionally disturbed individuals. For example, Evan, a severely disturbed child, was transferred to a fourth grade class pending the time he could be placed in a special room for emotionally handicapped children. The transfer to the fourth grade was necessary because Evan's previous class was in a constant state of disruption because of his behavior. Upon entering his new class for the first time, Evan immediately slid out of his seat and scooted up and down the rows of tables on his hands and knees, while making shrill, high-pitched, squeaking noises. The teacher and class viewed his behavior in silence for a time. The teacher then said to the class, "He can't help it. Do you think we can go on with our work and not let his behavior bother us?" The class said they could and continued with their work without seeming to be the least disturbed by the squeaks or the scooting movements. At recess time the children, whose turn it was to help new class members become acquainted with the school and school procedures, took Evan in hand just as they did any newcomer. Surrounded by other children, he behaved acceptably during the recess period.

Evan stayed with the class for three months. He stopped crawling around on the floor but continued to make odd sounds. Only when

his noises became too persistent and annoying would someone say, "Quiet down," or "That's too loud, Evan."

The point of this illustration is that healthy functioning classroom groups can tolerate a severely disturbed child, whose behavior is quite out of the ordinary, without suffering any noticeable slowdown in normal work activities.

The usual approach to such problems is to suggest steps teachers may take to change the individual. The view presented here is that teachers take steps to enable class groups to tolerate and accept individuals who behave in extraordinary ways because of emotional illness. It is not implied that teachers do nothing to help these individuals. However, the regular classroom teacher has neither the training, the time, nor a place to deal with severe psychological problems. Teachers who feel they must concentrate their efforts on children who are severely disturbed do so only at the expense of all other individuals and at the cost of less efficient group functioning. In this day and age it is necessary to enable classroom groups to accept and tolerate differences, rather than concentrating on changing individuals to make them more acceptable to the group.

Because the larger social order today is undergoing revolutionary changes, it can be expected that a very large number of children experience some emotional problems from time to time. Educational theory assumes that children bring these emotional problems to the classroom and that this accounts in large part for a number of behavioral reactions teachers encounter. Although it cannot be denied that events in homes, neighborhoods, and communities affect children attending elementary schools, it is not necessarily true that children bring these problems with them to the classroom, or that troubles from home, for example, account for the school's failure to help these individuals realize their potential. It is more likely that these background problems affect the performance of children to a minimal degree when the work situation is satisfactory and the classroom organization is healthy. On the other hand, it appears quite likely that youngsters will not be able to place these problems in the background when the classroom organization does not afford the group as a whole, or the individuals singly, chances to fulfill their tendencies and capacities for equilibrium and growth. When this state of affairs is not achieved, it is hypothesized that the emotional problems of average youngsters are maximized and extended. Children who have some problems and who also are deprived of opportunities to satisfy individual needs as well as needs arising from being a part of an organized system, do behave as expected. They fail to cooperate fully, often are disruptive, and they appear to be unwilling to accept responsibility for carrying out school tasks. It is more reasonable to predict that students behave as they do, not because of emotional difficulties which they bring with

them, but because circumstances in their organized work situation create additional problems and greatly intensify personal difficulties, making it impossible for them to fully realize their potential for growth.

## THE NATURE OF FACILITATIVE PRACTICES

An attempt was made to establish the beginnings of a conceptual framework for classroom management practices by analyzing typical classroom group reactions, and drawing from them the needed classroom-management functions.

The conclusion was that classroom management functions fall into two major categories involving facilitating and maintaining the classroom group. These two major divisions were derived from the study of characteristic classroom behavior which serves to make predictable needed classroom-management activities. These management activities serve to prevent some behavior from arising, and they use problem situations as a means for furthering and strengthening organizational development in the classroom.

The reason for identifying the major activities comprising the classroom-management dimension of teaching is to make possible the development of operational concepts. A major objective is to go far beyond the statements which have been made previously, such as those that say that classroom management involves group methods and creating conditions which satisfy the needs of individuals. The goal is to develop a framework from which the processes of classroom management may be developed. But more important, perhaps, it is intended to translate the requirements of classroom management into skill patterns and to train teachers to use these patterns. To do this requires the development of conceptual as well as operational skills. Understanding is needed of the nature of facilitative and maintenance activities. In this section we will briefly examine the nature of facilitation to serve as a base for the skill development which follows.

Facilitation literally means to assist, help, promote, and improve conditions within the classroom group. The psychological meaning includes easing the performance of individuals by lessening nerve resistance through continued applications of needed stimuli. This involves taking continued and successive actions which enable the classroom system to adjust and make internal changes as they are required. The internal changes, of course, are those which are satisfying to members and suitable for the classroom work situation. Another way of defining facilitation is to say that facilitative ac-

tions are group practices that create conditions which do not inhibit or restrain the full development of intellectual processes. Facilitative practices do not inhibit mental development because they reduce rather than intensify psychological tensions created by the malfunctioning of the internal system of the classroom organization. Poor group functioning does place constraints upon thought and the development of learning skills because energies are directed toward correcting the malfunctioning rather than upon learning.

The performance of facilitative activities requires teachers to be able to analyze the social situation, make decisions, and initiate the appropriate actions. When problem behavior arises which affects the total group, teachers analyze the total situation and base their management activities upon their diagnoses of the behavioral processes of their groups. They are not concerned with restoring order or control as such, but they direct their attention to establishing conditions in which members of the groups can control themselves and behave appropriately because it is most satisfying for them to do so.

Such definitions and statements concerning facilitative management activities are meaningless unless there is an understanding of the nature of the situations and the kind of group conditions and behavior to which they refer. Therefore, the nature of facilitation is made more explicit by relating facilitative acts to some characteristic classroom behavior or to some typical classroom situations.

Facilitative acts have reference to both the initial creation of good classroom conditions and to changing conditions in the classroom organization which do not lead to a fully functioning, cooperative group. *Incidents of characteristic classroom behaviors* reported by teachers usually describe poor conditions already established, or behavior stemming from unsatisfactory conditions which make classroom management difficult. The questions asked by teachers often refer to ways of initially establishing good conditions so that problems will not arise. For example, teachers frequently ask what actions can be taken on the first day or week of school to prevent problem behavior from occurring.

When teachers meet their classes on the first day of school they can facilitate the development of unity and cooperation by making honest, favorable appraisals of the group as a whole. They will avoid singling out individuals in the group for either blame or praise. They will try to assess group expectancies in regard to teacher behavior as well as those relating to procedures and school work. Frequently teachers attempt to encourage children by telling them the work will be easy. Children want to believe that school work is hard and at the same time receive assurances that they will be able to do it, or that they will receive assistance if it does become too difficult. The group can be assured that because of the nature of



them, but because circumstances in their organized work situation create additional problems and greatly intensify personal difficulties, making it impossible for them to fully realize their potential for growth.

## THE NATURE OF FACILITATIVE PRACTICES

An attempt was made to establish the beginnings of a conceptual framework for classroom management practices by analyzing typical classroom group reactions, and drawing from them the needed classroom-management functions.

The conclusion was that classroom management functions fall into two major categories involving facilitating and maintaining the classroom group. These two major divisions were derived from the study of characteristic classroom behavior which serves to make predictable needed classroom-management activities. These management activities serve to prevent some behavior from arising, and they use problem situations as a means for furthering and strengthening organizational development in the classroom.

The reason for identifying the major activities comprising the classroom-management dimension of teaching is to make possible the development of operational concepts. A major objective is to go far beyond the statements which have been made previously, such as those that say that classroom management involves group methods and creating conditions which satisfy the needs of individuals. The goal is to develop a framework from which the processes of classroom management may be developed. But more important, perhaps, it is intended to translate the requirements of classroom management into skill patterns and to train teachers to use these patterns. To do this requires the development of conceptual as well as operational skills. Understanding is needed of the nature of facilitative and maintenance activities. In this section we will briefly examine the nature of facilitation to serve as a base for the skill development which follows.

Facilitation literally means to assist, help, promote, and improve conditions within the classroom group. The psychological meaning includes easing the performance of individuals by lessening nerve resistance through continued applications of needed stimuli. This involves taking continued and successive actions which enable the classroom system to adjust and make internal changes as they are required. The internal changes, of course, are those which are satisfying to members and suitable for the classroom work situation. Another way of defining facilitation is to say that facilitative ac-

tions are group practices that create conditions which do not inhibit or restrain the full development of intellectual processes. Facilitative practices do not inhibit mental development because they reduce rather than intensify psychological tensions created by the malfunctioning of the internal system of the classroom organization. Poor group functioning does place constraints upon thought and the development of learning skills because energies are directed toward correcting the malfunctioning rather than upon learning.

The performance of facilitative activities requires teachers to be able to analyze the social situation, make decisions, and initiate the appropriate actions. When problem behavior arises which affects the total group, teachers analyze the total situation and base their management activities upon their diagnoses of the behavioral processes of their groups. They are not concerned with restoring order or control as such, but they direct their attention to establishing conditions in which members of the groups can control themselves and behave appropriately because it is most satisfying for them to do so.

Such definitions and statements concerning facilitative management activities are meaningless unless there is an understanding of the nature of the situations and the kind of group conditions and behavior to which they refer. Therefore, the nature of facilitation is made more explicit by relating facilitative acts to some characteristic classroom behavior or to some typical classroom situations.

Facilitative acts have reference to both the initial creation of good classroom conditions and to changing conditions in the classroom organization which do not lead to a fully functioning, cooperative group. *Incidents of characteristic classroom behaviors* reported by teachers usually describe poor conditions already established, or behavior stemming from unsatisfactory conditions which make classroom management difficult. The questions asked by teachers often refer to ways of initially establishing good conditions so that problems will not arise. For example, teachers frequently ask what actions can be taken on the first day or week of school to prevent problem behavior from occurring.

When teachers meet their classes on the first day of school they can facilitate the development of unity and cooperation by making honest, favorable appraisals of the group as a whole. They will avoid singling out individuals in the group for either blame or praise. They will try to assess group expectancies in regard to teacher behavior as well as those relating to procedures and school work. Frequently teachers attempt to encourage children by telling them the work will be easy. Children want to believe that school work is hard and at the same time receive assurances that they will be able to do it, or that they will receive assistance if it does become too difficult. The group can be assured that because of the nature of

all the things they will be doing together the situation will be highly satisfying. Evidence indicates that when groups are told they are good groups and that members will get along well together, and if frequent favorable group appraisals are made, unity does increase. Cooperative relations develop quickly.

Opportunities are provided for members to interact so they can assess the reactions of others to the school situation. Teachers can pose situations and ask children to state their views if they make sure that in some nonverbal way they have not indicated a desired response.

There are numerous ways to facilitate unity and cooperation at the opening of the school year. Just a few have been mentioned. They are cited to make the nature of facilitation more explicit.

Sometimes members of classroom groups meet together on the first day of school and in a very short space of time exhibit evidence of hostile, resistant reactions to school, the classroom situation, and to the teacher. Usually this does not relate in any way to the personal characteristics of the teacher. These reactions occur regardless of who the teacher is. The form the hostility and aggression may take can be affected by the personality of the teacher, but the fact that it exists is not the teacher's fault. The explanation for why some groups are hostile and aggressive varies with each class group. It may be due to the imposed group structure, previous school experiences, or it may stem from troubles in the neighborhood. The cause is not important since it is very doubtful that a teacher could do anything about the source of the difficulty. It is, however, extremely important to assess the reactions correctly. If the group is hostile the condition does exist, and since it is the beginning of the year a search for causes is not essential. Changing the hostile, aggressive reactions is essential, and much can be done to change conditions.

Steps can be taken to increase cooperation by allowing time for teacher-group and group-member interactions. It may take the form of planning for various activities, deciding the best way to carry out certain responsibilities, or it may revolve around any topic which elicits opinions. The usual type of planning must be modified so that students can express feelings and opinions (thereby releasing some hostility), and it is better not to make firm plans and reach any solid agreements that may be viewed as binding. However, in so far as possible, teachers should find ways of channeling feelings into positive action.

After training in classroom management skill development, teachers who feel secure can use a confrontation procedure. This involves telling the class that the feelings they hold are recognized. They are not asked why they feel as they do since it is doubtful that they know. They can be asked their opinions on what they think

could be done to improve the situation. It must be made clear *before* they make suggestions that all things are not possible but that this does not mean that they cannot suggest the impossible. In one case a teacher knew before the class met that the class members were resentful and somewhat hostile. Class size necessitated that the class be split into two sections. One section was placed with a popular, established teacher. The other section was placed with a teacher who was moved from a lower grade to teach the class. Parents resisted the splitting of the class and wished their students to be placed in the regular section. This, of course, increased the resistance of the students.

At the opening of class on the first day the new teacher stated in an unemotional tone, "I know you do not want to be in this class. You prefer Mr. Brown's class. There are things we can do, however, that may ease the disappointment." The teacher was not required to state what the things were that they could do because one student said, "It isn't because we don't like you, Miss Kay, but we just expected to be with Mr. Brown." After a number of children expressed strong feelings, the situation became less tense. Then a child asked the teacher, "Do you know enough to teach this grade?" The tone of the question carried no implication that it was felt the teacher did not know enough. However, the doubt clearly existed that a primary teacher could teach an upper grade. Miss Kay responded in the same vein that the question was asked by saying she felt she was capable and listed academic qualifications, training, and experience to justify the answer.

Although this first confrontation did not eliminate the children's feelings of disappointment, it did remove many hostile feelings and released the tension which existed when the class gathered for the first time. A great deal more had to be done to remove the convictions that this class was inferior to the other section. A first step was taken, however, to facilitate group development and cooperative behavior.

When teachers ask what they can do initially to prevent problem behavior from occurring, it is revealed that they believe problems must be prevented. It cannot be stressed too emphatically that when children work together in an organized face-to-face situation day after day, whether the period of time is one hour or more, problems will arise regardless of the nature of the groups or the environments in which they work. Classroom management must be perceived as a pattern of activities which develops a smooth functioning, cooperating system. But as well, it must be thoroughly recognized and understood that problems will arise regardless of how well the groups function and how cooperative members are.

It is sometimes forgotten or not well understood that the classroom organization is a system. It is an assemblage of individuals

who are interdependent because of their placement in a particular school grouping. These individuals interact with one another and with their teachers. The actions of one individual can cause a reaction in another individual or in the whole group of individuals. Also, the classroom system is composed of many interrelated variables and is affected by many factors in the environment. A change in one variable will effect changes in others. Factors in the school and neighborhood environment affect the behavior of children in the class group, and there are many influences which upset the operations of the classroom system. Successful classroom management requires that teachers understand and expect that problems will arise and that unless facilitative actions are taken against these problems, the system will not function properly. Members will attempt to stabilize conditions and energies are diverted from school tasks. It is stressed that teachers must expect problems to arise from time to time. Also, they must learn to look upon these problems as a means for increasing unity, cooperation, and member satisfaction with themselves and their class groups. Effective classroom-management practices reduce the number of problem incidents which arise, but they do not eliminate them. They occur predictably. When teachers learn to anticipate how members of their classroom groups will react, and when they can diagnose troublesome behaviors and know what steps to take, they can proceed with facilitative or maintenance activities much the same as they presently carry out instructional tasks.

## THE NATURE OF MAINTENANCE PRACTICES

The over-all objectives of classroom management is to create within the classroom organization a state of affairs which facilitates the accomplishment of educational goals. The patterns of activities employed will, of course, be vitally affected by the environment external to the classroom, and teachers often have little power to influence these effects. Within the classroom, however, teachers are responsible for the environment in which the children in the class groups work. In doing so, teachers facilitate the development of group unity and cooperation; they assist the group in establishing behavioral guidelines; they use problem solving to improve working conditions; and when necessary they modify or change group properties. But facilitation is not the only function required. The internal organization of the classroom system must be maintained or kept in good working order. If group members are forced to devote their time to maintaining group functioning and restoring balances,

they cannot devote the same time and effort to school work and learning. If the group is threatened or frustrated, the group itself tends to attempt to heighten its solidarity. This effort reduces the amount of energy individuals can direct toward accomplishing educational objectives. Just as a basic psychological need of the individual is the maintenance and enhancement of self, groups also appear to make adaptive changes to maintain internal integrity and to restore attractiveness. Although groups may not be equated with individuals in processes of adjustment, a group does operate as an entity with processes and problem-solving techniques of its own. When not in balance, it acts to maintain or restore functional operativeness if this function is not provided by the teacher.

Maintenance can be described as a process of resolving conflict, restoring morale, and harmonizing conditions when outside influences create disturbances in group functioning. If teachers do not recognize the symptoms which indicate that group integration is threatened, then group members themselves will attempt to restore balance. It is a function of classroom management to maintain and stabilize conditions in the group when either internal or external factors upset its functioning. When group morale is affected and steps are not taken immediately to restore conditions, group unity may suffer.

One group reaction which indicates the need for restoring morale is provided in the following illustration.

The children came into the room in a subdued manner following the afternoon recess. No one was saying a word or even looking around. Each child seemed intent on getting ready for the lesson. It was not difficult to sense that something was wrong. When asked, there was no response. They were asked again by saying, "Anyone could tell that something is troubling you. Let's get it cleared up so we can go ahead with spelling." After a short silence a girl spoke out and said, "We lost our volley ball for the rest of the month—and for no reason!" Several boys turned to the girl and in manner and tone I recognized as a good imitation of the vice principal said, "Don't whine," and, "Take your punishment like sixth graders. Don't give excuses!" It took no further urging to get the story. It seemed a youngster from another room had attempted to return the ball but instead of reaching its mark it had sailed over a plywood fence into an area where carpenters were working on a new addition to the building. The vice principal came out of the building area just as the students were wondering what to do, as all grades had been warned not to let this happen. He stated that he was taking the ball for the month. When the

class protested he had told them to stop giving excuses and whining. It appeared that the real upset in the class was because of these inferences that they were babies and whined and whimpered when faced with the consequences of their own carelessness.

Now this situation was a real dilemma. I couldn't let them continue to denounce the vice principal, yet the affair seemed to turn the class members on each other. After the first outburst they began blaming one another for what had happened. Something had to be done because it was pretty evident that the whole class was falling apart.

The last words of the teacher who described the class as "falling apart" is a good description of a state of affairs which requires that teachers have knowledge and skill to perform the maintenance function. In this case, the need was to restore morale by taking actions which would channel the emotional responses toward positive action. In the incident cited, it appears that the unity of the group began to disintegrate very quickly. After hearing enough to know the nature of the difficulty, had the teacher asked the group to formulate the problem in terms which would allow them to take some constructive action, the group's energy would not have been channeled into blaming one another. Perhaps a letter to the vice principal stating the facts of the case would not return the volley ball. Directing the group's efforts toward taking positive action would, however, succeed in maintaining group unity.

The techniques employed in the maintenance function of classroom management are somewhat similar to those used in group facilitation. Development of conceptual skill in recognizing symptoms is most important in maintenance. Not all reactions of groups which indicate that group functioning is impaired are as visible as they were in the incident cited. Sometimes the reactions are hidden or subtle. Teachers need skill and training in sensing when a group is experiencing difficulty in its functional procedures.

## Summary

The development of a useful theory of classroom management includes among other things, a clearly defined concept of what classroom management is and how it relates to the total teaching transaction. The need for a systematic theory that can be made operational by teachers is discussed. It should help teachers to understand the basic causes of behavior problems in the classroom organization, to be able to diagnose them, and to have the requisite skills to alter some parts of the situation.

The scope and function of the managerial aspect of teaching is drawn from commonly occurring problem behavior. An analysis is made of the classroom behavior reported as problems by hundreds of teachers. It produced categories of classroom-management problems in behavioral terms.

Variations in group behavior when the groups are essentially similar and in similar situations are examined in relation to organization and management practices in the school and classroom.

A workable organization and conditions within a classroom is conducive to, and, in fact, is necessary for the effective development of individual potential. The teacher's part is to act to stabilize the learning and working conditions. The stabilizing is of dynamic and changing conditions in a fluid system of interaction.

The facilitation and maintenance tasks are means through which teachers, by exercising their skills, may improve conditions. Since facilitating and establishing good conditions are only part of the complete task, attention to maintenance is also necessary.

### For Further Study

1. Why is the management dimension of teaching not always recognized to be as important as, in fact, it is?

2. Although they are teaching in different schools and at different grade levels, teachers' reports of their problems with classroom groups are noticeably similar. Why?

3. Select an instance of group problem behavior from your own observation and experience or by interviewing a teacher. Make brief notes for clarity and to emphasize the nature of the problem. Next, classify the problem according to "Problem Analysis" in this chapter.

4. Describe a situation in which a class approved of the misbehavior of individuals. Include the age of the children, the general conditions which were unsatisfactory, the specific situation in which misbehavior occurred, and the reaction of the class.

5. How can misbehavior which has class approval be recognized by the teacher? List as many clues and indications as possible.

6. What is meant by the statement that classroom groups develop means to maintain equilibrium within the system by adjusting and adapting? Give an example, if possible.

7. Discuss the relationship between classroom morale and individual achievement. Prepare a simple diagram to show what happens when morale is changed, either positively or negatively.

8. Explain the concepts: facilitative tasks and maintenance tasks.

9. Under "Discipline as a Function of Classroom Management," review the case of Evan. Give attention to what and how the



teacher spoke. Explain the theory underlying the teacher's actions.

10. Plan some remarks that you would make to your class on the first day of school in order to facilitate unity and cooperation. Criteria should include honest and favorable remarks, and remarks for the whole group. Tape-record your remarks, listen critically, and decide where you were successful and where improvement is needed.

# **3**

## **DYNAMICS OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR IN THE CLASSROOM SETTING**

### **INTRODUCTION**

A framework for understanding the individual and collective behavior of children is presented in this chapter. Three interrelated and overlapping components are considered: the individual child, the classroom group, and the school as an institution. The school district or system is not included in this treatment of behavior in school groups.

The individual brings to the school assumptions of what school is like, of appropriate behavior, and of his own self-worth. The group he enters confirms or alters these preconceived ideas.

Correct assessment of individuals with problems requires placing those with severe emotional problems where they may receive individual help and treatment. The children who appear to be problems, but who in fact are reacting to unsatisfactory group conditions, or who have inadequate perceptions or social learning, also require identification. Relevant here, improved group analysis and management practices are discussed and behavior resulting from individuals adjusting to frustration and stress is examined under individual headings.

The classroom group is defined and its place in the affective life of the child is described. The major properties of groups are identified and illustrated from real incidents. The interrelated properties include unity, interaction and communication, and structure and goals.

The climate of the group is held to be essential in achieving change. Factors that operate in a group that is resistant to change are described and related to desirable management practice.

The organization of the school is examined for its effects on the classroom. The effects include the teacher and his organization of the class, the learner, and the quality of interaction. Curriculum, grouping of students for instructional purposes, use of the physical plant and equipment, and rules and regulations are aspects of the organization.

The preceding chapter stated that the functions of classroom management are to facilitate group operations and to maintain and restore conditions when operations are interrupted. The idea was presented, also, that management practices do not focus on changing the behavior of individuals, but that the group is organized and conditions established so that it is in individuals' own best interest to learn, behave, cooperate, and function to the best of his ability.

The emphasis in this chapter on creating a framework to develop understanding of why children individually and children collectively behave the way they do in schools and classrooms. Although the framework is far from complete, it is the first step in a theory of classroom behavior and management practice needed to develop fully functioning and cooperating individuals.

The rate of production of small-group research studies has increased tremendously during the last few decades, as have studies of individuals in organizational settings. Of the total volume, only a few have been directed toward studying children in the classroom organization. However, many findings have implications for understanding classroom behavior and for improving management practices.

The analysis of the behavior of children in classroom groupings does not propose to make an original contribution to knowledge in the field of small-group research. What it does purport is to apply the concepts and the variables which explain what happens in the organized groupings of children that cause management problems in schools. An attempt is made not only to explain, but also to make possible the prediction of recurring patterns of behavior which characterize groups that are easy or difficult to manage. A more appropriate way of viewing "good" or "poor" groups is to conceive classroom groups as being either internally cooperative or noncooperative, or as facilitating or inhibiting the achievement of educational objectives. The task of developing management skills requires an understanding of group behavior so that educational objectives may be more rationally obtained through research.

In order to be successful in managing the groups of children assigned to them for instruction, teachers must develop skills derived from systematic research. The task of learning effective management skills is possible today because knowledge is available which explains the behavior of individuals in organized settings. Also, there is much information available which is relevant to changing environmental conditions and to the behavior patterns which deter individuals from achieving to their full potential. There are data, as well, which specify the skill required to put this knowledge into action in the classroom.

This chapter begins to establish a theoretical framework which explains why children behave the way they do in schools and class-

rooms and provides a foundation for practices and methods for achieving desired changes in classroom-behavior patterns.

## COMPONENTS EXPLAINING CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR

Three interrelated components are used to explain the behavior of individuals in organized settings: the individual, the group, and the institution—or, in the present case, the school. If each component is considered as a system, they could be extended to include district school systems, state school systems, educational controls of the Federal government, and all the factors affecting each of these. For purposes of understanding the behavior of children in classroom groups, only the basic components are considered: the individual child, the classroom group, and the school organization.

A complete discussion of the theories and research regarding individual behavior would require several volumes. In any case, teacher-training programs provide an extensive foundation in child psychology and in child growth and development. Instead of repeating this material, which is useful in understanding individuals and crucial to learning effective instructional processes, efforts are concentrated upon individuals as members of classroom groups. When teachers are told that behavior problems lessen, and that good relations result from *treating each child as an individual*, it seriously reduces their effectiveness when they must deal with individuals who are acting for the group. This advice ignores the reality of the classroom group organization, and the tendency of groups to develop patterns of behavior to maintain themselves.

Human personality is an important component in the behavior of the classroom group, and a complete conceptual framework analyzing the behavior of individuals in organized groups should include a thorough discussion of it. However, the individual is presented here only in relation to the problems which tend to arise as the individual interacts with various aspects of the group organization. Particular attention is given to analyzing common classroom behavior in which individuals are considered discipline problems, when, in fact, they are acting as agents of the group.

## THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE CLASSROOM GROUP

The implicit ideas that children have about what school is like and about what kind of actions are appropriate in the classroom are ingrained as a result of very early experiences. Perhaps the most

important experience is that received from parents and older brothers and sisters. Children acquire attitudes about school that prepare them for the kind of experiences they expect to encounter. As they are exposed to the wider environment of the neighborhood and to television, they receive a set of impressions about the school that lies just a year or more ahead of them. Consequently, before a child enters kindergarten, he will already have acquired a set of assumptions about what school is like, what he can expect from it, and how he should conduct himself in the classroom and in other areas of the school environment.

Each child's preconceptions about school have a great deal to do with whether he is docile or aggressive, communicative or inarticulate, optimistic or skeptical, for no matter what the situation actually is, the child will behave somewhat consistently with how he believes the situation to be.

The child's implicit ideas about what the school environment is like are rarely conscious or articulated, but his view of the classroom environment and his expectancies affect his attitudes and working behavior. First, the child's perception of the situation is determined both by what occurs in the situation and by previously held expectancies; second, whether the classroom work environment is attractive to him or not is determined in part by attitudes acquired in past experiences. School experiences which conform to previously held expectancies tend to be most readily perceived. What this means to teachers and the management practices they employ is that many children do not expect school to be particularly pleasant or attractive. They know that education is valued highly in today's world, but the same sources which provide this belief also downgrade school experiences. Newscasters comment, "The happiest day in children's lives is here. School is out today!" Teachers are favorite subjects for cartoons, and school is rarely pictured as a place whose opening is eagerly awaited by children. Of course, young children, and others as well, do anticipate going to school, but it seems that as they progress from year to year their negative expectations, once aroused and reinforced, tend to persist. Therefore, many individuals by the third or fourth year of school enter the classroom on the first day exhibiting a readiness to experience an unpleasant situation. This is to say, social forces in society tend to shape individual's expectations about his school experiences with the negative outweighing the positive. When negative expectancies are reinforced, i.e., when children find that the negative aspects of school life are confirmed, individuals not only prepare themselves for various kinds of undesirable situations but they look for them. It is usually by consolidating efforts that individuals resist teachers' . . . Normal children do not do so unless they have

The individual child has expectations relating to his own worth. When these expectations are reinforced by others in the classroom group his feelings about himself are confirmed. The present emphasis upon teacher-pupil relationships often conveys the idea that it is this teacher-pupil interaction which confirms a child's perception of his own worth and identity. For most individuals, it is the group which does the reinforcing, and it is the group which contributes to an individual's self-esteem or lack of it. The nature of the group, not the teacher, contributes most to a child's feeling of identity, worth, and self-esteem. If the group is one that an individual finds attractive, if it has unity, and if its members cooperate, the self-esteem of the individual will be enhanced. This also applies to individuals who are only marginal members. Only an individual who does not find the group attractive and who refuses to conform to group norms is likely to be isolated or rejected by other members. Members may not select certain individuals as the ones most liked when sociometric devices are used. However, this does not mean that these individuals are not accepted and considered as members of the group.

### Individuals with Problems

Long lists of behavior problems of individual children can be found in the literature of education. Often they are derived from studies which investigate teacher attitudes, new behavior problems now confronting today's teachers, or they may come from studies of the problems of teachers who, in turn, list the misbehavior of individuals. The problem individuals referred to here are those who misbehave. They fight, show-off, talk back, disobey, and tattle. They are impudent, defiant, or disorderly. The list of descriptive terms is lengthy. In other cases, the lists of problem behavior are indicative of psychological maladjustments. These descriptions refer to children who have emotional problems. The concern here is for those students who are viewed as problems because they frequently disrupt processes of instruction, upset others in the class, or appear generally recalcitrant.

In assessing the total picture, it appears that many children now considered problems are not problems at all in the sense that they behave as they do because they have not learned better, or because they have inadequate social characteristics. Much of the behavior described results from unsatisfactory conditions in the classroom organization, and these problem children are acting for the group. In the majority of cases, teachers who seem to have problem individuals in their classrooms do not have individual problems at all. They have class groups with problems, or the group is a problem group.

A good deal of attention is given to the reasons why individuals misbehave. Suggested practices are predicated upon studies of individual children and humanitarian values. Since the teaching transaction primarily is viewed as instruction, most suggestions relate to diagnosing learning difficulties or to some other aspect of the teaching-learning process. It is useful to distinguish between instructional processes and management activities because of the tendency to believe that improving instructional methods will resolve many behavioral problems.

The failure to distinguish management activities from instructional practices is a source of much confusion. Improving reading instruction for a child, for example, will not result in an improvement in his social behavior if he is acting as an agent of the group for the purpose of improving group conditions. Better instructional methods in any subject area will not correct group problems or change the behavior of a problem group. Class groups whose members are apathetic and indifferent to instruction are revealing an internal disorder in the class organization much more than they are showing individual lack of interest or motivation.

What can teachers do about individuals who misbehave? First, they must be able to diagnose the situation and determine whether the source of difficulty rests with the child, or if the misbehavior is a result of unsatisfactory conditions in the internal system of the classroom organization. The clues for making such decisions are quite obvious. When a child or several children talk out, fail to follow procedures, or otherwise disrupt the situation, a cooperative group either tolerates or ignores the behavior up to a point. If the behavior becomes too annoying, group members will indicate disapproval.

Children who behave in ways that are disapproved by the group, or children who act inappropriately and who are ignored by the group, or children whose actions annoy the group until they look to the teacher to improve the situation, are children with problems. The following incident provides an example.

One boy, although of high ability as recorded by tests, didn't like school and would usually be the last one to start any work in class. His papers were extremely messy and usually incomplete. He could always find something else to do to kill time rather than do the work assigned. He would even resort to clowning to entertain the class sometimes.

The class would look at him, then turn to the teacher to see what she would do.

Many times children who misbehave and who are individuals with problems, cause the class members to become upset. Although

these children can be classified as individuals with problems, the group reaction indicates that the conditions in the group are not as stable and satisfying as they should be. The following incident illustrates this point.

I have one boy in my class whose disruptive behavior has caused problems the whole semester. In our classroom all children sit at tables for most of the day. This boy is constantly antagonizing all the children near him. Three days ago I decided that I would change the seating arrangement. I put this boy between two of the best behaved girls at a front table. He began to cause problems, but the girls ignored him the first day. The second day the boy continued pinching, poking, talking, and moving around. At almost the same time the two girls turned to the boy and told him to keep his hands to himself. The child sat there denying having caused any problems. The total class was irritated by the interruption because they were engrossed in a story I was telling to introduce a lesson. When the interruption occurred the class then tried to give an individual account of the problem this child had been causing inside and outside of the classroom.

Then there are children who are different in some way because of racial, ethnic, or social background or because they are physically handicapped. The educational approach to teaching is to view these kinds of problems individually, i.e., teachers are taught to direct their attention to helping these children overcome their handicaps and, by so doing, help them to gain acceptance. There is, of course, recognition of the fact that others in the class must be kind to individuals who are different, but the emphasis usually is on working with the individual and not on recognizing an inherent group handicap. The following incident illustrates this point.

Name calling when used in a joking manner is easy to forget, but Rex is called "Goofy" by all the upper graders. The word has been passed on between the children that Rex is to be called Goofy. The reasons for nicknaming Rex are many which are natural and not to his choosing. Yet others are extremely critical of these shortcomings.

Rex has problems in speech, often slurs his words; he drools, he often drops things on the floor, he has a messy desk, and he isn't very bright. He seems not to be bothered by this name calling or by being used as an errand boy. But to his father he expresses this problem as a block to his concentration.

"If you talk about someone else make sure you are per-



fect first." This is generally the technique I've attempted to use in Rex's defense. But I have little control over the other classes and my own class during physical education.

Rex's father mentioned that it might be better to transfer him to another school. But I encouraged him to overcome his problem now.

This problem might be improving because as I talked to Rex about not letting name calling become serious, he mentioned it wasn't so bad now because I fight back for him. Another thing I've done is to stress that he become more conscious of his messiness. I've attempted to show a fondness for him to demonstrate my acceptance of him. I hope the youngsters try to imitate their teacher in this area particularly.

The problem Rex has is an individual one, and there is no intent to imply that teachers should not give personal attention and help to such a child. The inference given in the illustration is that children other than his classmates called Rex Goofy. However, it is clear that his own classmates reject him also, since the teacher feels he might gain more acceptance if he were not messy. The child has a problem, but so has the group. A cohesive group generally protects even its marginal members from outside criticism.

A satisfied, well-functioning group will not need moralizing from the teacher to make its members accept children who have handicaps or who are otherwise different. By means of the various facilitative techniques fully developed in later sections, the problem the teacher describes can be handled simply because the group, as a part of its normal functioning, will accept members' differences and handicaps.

Most teachers feel concern for the handicapped child who receives poor treatment from his classmates. Also, a large number of teachers feel sympathy for a child who acts up or who does not conform to expected best behavior and who receives strong expressions of group disapproval. Teachers generally interpret this situation as one in which the child is seeking acceptance and approval from a group that is rejecting him. In these cases, teachers are misinterpreting a common group phenomenon and viewing it as nonacceptance. A unified group that values cohesiveness has a tendency to communicate to an individual who does not behave as members believe that he should. This communication, which may appear to be non-accepting to teachers, is actually a method of exerting pressure upon a child in an effort to integrate him into the group. The following incident provides an illustration.

Jimmy is continually harassing members in the class. He is too frail to be a bully but he is very adept at pestering

them. (He uses a gadfly approach.) Yesterday he wadded up small pieces of wet paper towels and dropped them on some girls while they were on the stairway returning to class just before one o'clock.

Surprisingly the group seems to tolerate Jimmy except when he gets out of line, and then they reveal their true feelings of rejection. One day Jimmy cursed and used words that one might find on a fence in a back alley. All at once the children spoke out and really told him what they thought of him. This has happened several times, and though Jimmy does get out of line, it is hard not to feel sorry for him.

The child in this incident undoubtedly was trying to gain attention and full acceptance. The fact that the group turned on him and communicated disapproval indicated that the group did not reject him. The group's reaction to Jimmy's behavior indicated only that an effort was being made to make him act appropriately and in accordance with behavior which it approved.

When a group is cooperative and unified, the members will often accept nonconforming behavior to a point, if there is general recognition that the child is different. When members do communicate strong disapproval, it is an attempt to make the child behave in ways more acceptable to the group. The reaction indicates that the child is considered part of the group. However, a class of children who do not value unity may ridicule such a child.

Some children seem to be unable to perceive what the group expects or the kind of behavior it approves. Often these children have a strong desire for group approval and acceptance but they have no conception of the limits or the range of behavior which the group will tolerate. These children sometimes upset the group and create problems of group control because their behavior arouses group reactions which are evidenced in ways that disturb the regular classroom routine. These children lack perception as to what the group will approve, and they do not perceive what is expected as appropriate behavior.

Because teachers view such children as isolates, and because recommended practices direct them to do so, teachers usually try to make children better liked. The problem is not one of personal like or dislike. Such children are unable to behave in accordance with the range of conforming behavior set by the group. The actions teachers frequently take are inappropriate to the situation. In an effort to make children feel important and to increase their stature in the eyes of other group members, teachers place these individuals in desirable positions. They are selected for monitors; they are made chairmen of committees, or they are given special attention and recognition. These practices generally disrupt normal

Most classrooms today have at least one child, if not several, who are handicapped to some degree. The handicap may be behavioral, physical, intellectual, emotional, or social. When these children are not accepted by others in the class, most teachers are concerned. They try to make the child more acceptable to the group instead of changing conditions in the group organization so that the group is healthy and accepting of all its members.

## Group Effects Upon Individual Behavior

Individuals adapt collectively to the conditions in the classroom and school. When the demands of the formal school organization prevent the formation of a healthy functioning group, or when teacher practices are suppressive, or if school policies and regulations are too inhibiting, individuals tend to experience frustration and anxiety. When individuals in a class group are frustrated because they are unable to achieve a desired goal or because of pressures in the school environment, they have a strong need to reduce the painful feelings arising from frustration and anxiety. The members collectively, then, often resort to responses which teachers view as problem behavior. Actually, the problem behavior is a series of reactions by which the individuals in the group seek to reduce tension. What appears to be inexplicable behavior can become more intelligible to teachers if they understand that the group members are satisfying this need to reduce the tension associated with frustration, anxiety, or stress, whatever the cause of these conditions may be.

*The behavior that results from frustration and anxiety can be observed in classroom groups.* At times when pressure is great, the children on the whole will tend to be dependent, subordinate, and passive toward the teacher. This occurs most frequently in the primary grades. When groups react with passivity, they tend not to use their abilities to the fullest extent. The same set of conditions may cause a group of individuals to become apathetic and fearful. Again efficiency is reduced.

*Submissive, Dependent Individuals.* A group of children that exhibits submissive, dependent reactions usually follows the teachers' suggestions, obeys the rules, and tries in many ways to please the teacher. The interaction is mainly between the teacher and individual pupils, therefore the group lacks solidarity, and group morale is low. Although a casual visitor might see only a quiet, peaceful room of children who appear to follow directions and to conform to the standards of acceptable behavior, a more careful observation might reveal the following reactions. Accompanying the docility is complete dependence upon the teacher. Little self-

direction is in evidence. Some individuals require constant assurance that what they are doing is correct. There is a lack of spontaneity; member communication is poor; few members assume responsibility; and self-direction is lacking. There are few attempts by the group to solve the problems which arise in play or work activities. Members turn such problems over to the teacher for solving. In general, the children in such groups exhibit a high frequency of expressions of defense mechanisms such as day dreaming, rigid conformity, submission, and sometimes punitive behavior when the teacher is not in direct contact with the group.

An observer described this incident which is an example of a dependent submissive class reaction pattern.

Miss Brown "loves" her second grade children, and they seem very fond of her. She pays a great deal of attention to each child, and it must be said that she is quite successful in raising achievement scores in reading and arithmetic.

However, it is painful to visit her room. The children sit in their seats as quiet as little mice working away at writing and reading. If a child does happen to stir, Miss Brown never fails to see it. She never says anything directly to the child. Her method is to say in a sweet, sorrowful voice, "Miss Brownie does not like to see children not working," or "Miss Brownie likes all these children who are working so hard!" (Though this isn't her real name, she always uses a diminutive and always speaks of herself in the third person.)

Miss Brown never raises her voice, and she always speaks sweetly. Her method of controlling by praise and comparison is very effective in achieving an almost silent room.

It is fortunate that Miss Brown is rarely absent from school because when this did occur on one occasion, the class went completely to pieces. My office is close by and it was my lot to have to help the substitute restore order and calm the children. These children who were usually so quiet were bouncing up and down, running up to the teacher, and seemed unable to function at all. I hated to do it, but when the children became quiet enough, I asked them in a sad tone, "What will Miss Brownie think of you? You want her to be proud," and so on. It worked! They quieted down and the substitute managed to control them by using similar reminders.

*Apathetic, Fearful Individuals.* Children reacting with apathy or fear conform when the teacher initiates an act. This group, as in the case of the previous group, follows directions. The members do

as they are asked and do not resist. However, there is complete apathy shown toward school work and little interest shown in developing a friendly, cohesive group. The apathy extends to the group situation as well as toward the class activities and tasks. Individual responses show a high frequency of expressions of defense mechanisms, i.e., responses revealing anxiety such as lying, cheating, and deception. Confusion, conflict, and rivalry characterize group relations on the playground. There is little regard for fair play, cooperation, or honesty. Many punitive and aggressive acts occur.

Although the general atmosphere in the class is quiet, and few disruptions occur, a class reacting with apathy and fear is composed of individuals who are defensive, anxious, punitive, and who do not like the school work, the class group, and few, if any, individuals in the group.

*Aggressive, Hostile Individuals.* Individuals often react to frustrating situations by making hostile attacks upon the problem situation or the people in it. There are many forms this aggressive reaction may take, but whatever pattern of behavior is employed generally results in an undesirable situation in the classroom. Because teachers know they are expected to maintain a certain order or a certain degree of classroom control, and because they do not understand the source of the hostile behavior, they, too, become frustrated and sometimes are forced into using threatening practices because they do not know more effective ones. Aggressive responses by teachers who react to class behavior arising from frustration do not change the cause of the frustration. In fact, such responses only create more frustration and more undesirable behavior.

The findings of studies of small-group behavior in situations of frustration and stress indicate that frustration is created by certain kinds of situations or certain kinds of leader behavior, and that the frustrating situations evoke either hostile or withdrawing behavior. In some situations, highly cohesive groups express more hostility toward the leader than do groups low in cohesion. This finding has important implications for classroom teachers, for when cohesive class groups become frustrated, teachers can expect that they may receive some expressions of hostility and aggression from the group.

A finding of particular importance for the understanding of classroom group behavior is that group reactions to frustration are often displaced. This finding would seem to apply in the cases of several types of group reactions and also to the handling or modification of class behavior. For example, hostile group reactions to frustrating situations are often vented upon a group member who becomes the scapegoat for the class. Also, as described previously, the group desires to attack the teacher but members are afraid to do so; the

direction is in evidence. Some individuals require constant assurance that what they are doing is correct. There is a lack of spontaneity; member communication is poor; few members assume responsibility; and self-direction is lacking. There are few attempts by the group to solve the problems which arise in play or work activities. Members turn such problems over to the teacher for solving. In general, the children in such groups exhibit a high frequency of expressions of defense mechanisms such as day dreaming, rigid conformity, submission, and sometimes punitive behavior when the teacher is not in direct contact with the group.

An observer described this incident which is an example of a dependent submissive class reaction pattern

Miss Brown "loves" her second grade children, and they seem very fond of her. She pays a great deal of attention to each child, and it must be said that she is quite successful in raising achievement scores in reading and arithmetic.

However, it is painful to visit her room. The children sit in their seats as quiet as little mice working away at writing and reading. If a child does happen to stir, Miss Brown never fails to see it. She never says anything directly to the child. Her method is to say in a sweet, sorrowful voice, "Miss Brownie does not like to see children not working," or "Miss Brownie likes all these children who are working so hard!" (Though this isn't her real name, she always uses a diminutive and always speaks of herself in the third person.)

Miss Brown never raises her voice, and she always speaks sweetly. Her method of controlling by praise and comparison is very effective in achieving an almost silent room.

It is fortunate that Miss Brown is rarely absent from school because when this did occur on one occasion, the class went completely to pieces. My office is close by and it was my lot to have to help the substitute restore order and calm the children. These children who were usually so quiet were bouncing up and down, running up to the teacher, and seemed unable to function at all. I hated to do it, but when the children became quiet enough, I asked them in a sad tone, "What will Miss Brownie think of you? You want her to be proud," and so on. It worked! They quieted down and the substitute managed to control them by using similar reminders.

*Apathetic, Fearful Individuals.* Children reacting with apathy or fear conform when the teacher initiates an act. This group, as in the case of the previous group, follows directions. The members do

as they are asked and do not resist. However, there is complete apathy shown toward school work and little interest shown in developing a friendly, cohesive group. The apathy extends to the group situation as well as toward the class activities and tasks. Individual responses show a high frequency of expressions of defense mechanisms, i.e., responses revealing anxiety such as lying, cheating, and deception. Confusion, conflict, and rivalry characterize group relations on the playground. There is little regard for fair play, cooperation, or honesty. Many punitive and aggressive acts occur.

Although the general atmosphere in the class is quiet, and few disruptions occur, a class reacting with apathy and fear is composed of individuals who are defensive, anxious, punitive, and who do not like the school work, the class group, and few, if any, individuals in the group.

*Aggressive, Hostile Individuals.* Individuals often react to frustrating situations by making hostile attacks upon the problem situation or the people in it. There are many forms this aggressive reaction may take, but whatever pattern of behavior is employed generally results in an undesirable situation in the classroom. Because teachers know they are expected to maintain a certain order or a certain degree of classroom control, and because they do not understand the source of the hostile behavior, they, too, become frustrated and sometimes are forced into using threatening practices because they do not know more effective ones. Aggressive responses by teachers who react to class behavior arising from frustration do not change the cause of the frustration. In fact, such responses only create more frustration and more undesirable behavior.

The findings of studies of small-group behavior in situations of frustration and stress indicate that frustration is created by certain kinds of situations or certain kinds of leader behavior, and that the frustrating situations evoke either hostile or withdrawing behavior. In some situations, highly cohesive groups express more hostility toward the leader than do groups low in cohesion. This finding has important implications for classroom teachers, for when cohesive class groups become frustrated, teachers can expect that they may receive some expressions of hostility and aggression from the group.

A finding of particular importance for the understanding of classroom group behavior is that group reactions to frustration are often displaced. This finding would seem to apply in the cases of several types of group reactions and also to the handling or modification of class behavior. For example, hostile group reactions to frustrating situations are often vented upon a group member who becomes the scapegoat for the class. Also, as described previously, the group desires to attack the teacher but members are afraid to do so; the

group approves the antics of the class clown who expresses the group's hostility by undermining the teacher's control. Sometimes groups are known to express hostility by inciting a member to act in a disturbing way. The disturbing or aggressive behavior is instigated and approved by the group but is carried out by one individual. In such situations, teachers who attempt to correct or control individuals only increase group hostility.

Observers of classroom behavior have often noted that class groups sometimes react with imitative behavior. Classroom teachers can gain a better understanding of imitative behavior if they recognize that tension, boredom, or an unpleasant state of affairs appears to create, at times, an epidemic of imitative behavior. Opposite conditions, i.e., a pleasant state of affairs and interesting tasks, also may produce contagious, cooperative behavior.

All groups at times face strange, threatening, and anxiety-producing situations. Under stress and anxiety groups can exhibit behavior which is more integrative and cooperative if the group is a source of real security to its members. Awareness that some situations produce anxiety and stress can help teachers recognize these reactions and consider the means by which the anxiety can be lessened, or the ways by which groups may be helped to adapt to these conditions.

Educational literature today abounds with discussions of children who are apathetic, indifferent, hostile, or aggressive. A common approach to this problem is to consider ways of motivating these children. The approach presented here is that conditions in the class and school organization cause children to experience frustration and that whole groups of children tend to adapt to these conditions collectively. When nothing is done to alleviate a suppressive working situation then individuals tend to use few of their abilities or to work to their potential on instructional tasks. Conditions in the classroom are the primary cause of individuals not working to the best of their abilities. Their various modes of adapting result in apathy, lack of interest, decreased involvement, or in energies being directed toward actively resisting instructional processes. In many cases the primary goal of a group of children in the classroom is to maintain themselves internally and to adapt to the classroom and school environment. Some teaching practices now employed reinforce the very behavior that education wishes to avoid. Individualization is emphasized in all phases of school life because it is believed that a completely individualized approach satisfies individual needs. This idea leads to inappropriate management practices when dealing with the group as a whole.

It is proposed that appropriate management practices will effectively release both the teachers' and the children's potential. When conditions are established that allow for the development of a fully functioning classroom system, children will have much more energy



available to devote to instructional tasks and learning. Many individual needs will be met when children are given some opportunity to use their abilities to solve problems of group functioning and relationships, and when they are given a voice in those things that they feel are important.

## Problem Individuals

It was stated previously that a large number of children presently viewed as "problem children" because they misbehave and cause other children in the class to misbehave also, are for the most part not problems at all. They are acting as agents of the group for the purpose of making group conditions more stable or satisfying or they react with aggression for the group when frustration exists. Such children can be identified quite easily since group members encourage, approve, and applaud the behavior of these individuals. These so-called problem children are performing a type of facilitation and maintenance which relieves group strains and tensions. In another group situation these children might act cooperatively and take a leading role in censuring individuals who do not behave in approved ways. Since it appears that these problem individuals sometimes behave in disruptive ways all the way through school, the question might be asked as to why this is so. It can be explained by the fact that there are often similarities in classroom conditions in individual schools.

When satisfactory group conditions exist, and teachers have performed the needed facilitative and maintenance activities, there is *no need for one or more members of the classroom organization to take over the role of classroom management and ease strains, frustrations, and anxieties.* Since these individuals are sensitive to group needs and norms for behavior, when conditions are satisfactory they often are among the most cooperative and conforming members of the class. These problem individuals, then, are not problems at all in the sense that they make poor individual adjustments to the classroom situation. The source of their disruptive behaviors stems from a poorly functioning group and unsatisfactory group conditions.

Behavior that results from conflict, frustration, and failure leads to aggressive, hostile reactions. When the demands of the situation are antagonistic to group needs there are several possible modes of reaction. One common form is for individuals to act for the group to relieve tensions. The total response may be viewed as one in which individuals in the group respond to the state of affairs with aggressive, hostile reactions which meet with group approval because then the group is enabled to react collectively without actually initiating the aggressive acts.

When a class group approves aggressive, hostile reactions, the

behavior patterns are usually clearly visible, but the cause is often attributed to the behavior of problem individuals and not to the source. It is difficult to determine whether the reactions are responses to teacher-initiated acts, a failure of the teacher to act, or environmental conditions. One reason for this is that often the reactions are not immediate; another reason is that acts of hostility and aggression take a number of forms. However, if the class group appears to be highly cohesive, i.e., if members seem to like one another and get along well together, then it may be assumed that the aggression and hostility displayed are not results of an aspect of group composition or member characteristics but reactions to teacher-initiated acts, to a teacher's failure to perform needed management functions, or to frustrating situations in the school environment.

An aggressive, hostile group may be described as one which behaves in one or more of the following ways.

1. One or more children constantly disrupt group tasks and activities and the group approves this behavior.
2. One or two children are discourteous and rude to the teacher and the group does not disapprove this behavior.
3. One child is the clown or jester in the group and he causes hilarity and boisterousness. (In other words, the group sanctions and applauds this behavior.)
4. One or a few children constantly rebel against imposed authority and the group approves and applauds this behavior.
5. The group sometimes displays imitative behavior which soon turns into deliberate, disruptive acts.

Although on the surface it appears to teachers that individuals who initiate the aggressive, hostile acts are "problem" children, and that they cause the group as a whole to react inappropriately or they cause the disruption, the group itself is the source of difficulty and the individuals act only as agents of the group. Analysis of reports of teachers over the past few years indicates that formerly class groups only rarely displayed outward, aggressive, hostile reactions but that these responses to dissatisfaction are now becoming more prevalent. It remains more common, however, for one or more members of a class to act for the group, and for most teachers to view these reactions as problems of individual behavior. This state of affairs should be perceived as problems that stem from poor group conditions and a group reaction that is led by one or a few individuals.

Group unity and integration is most important to members when the group is under some kind of pressure. But unity is also valued by children in routine classroom operations. When children from various rooms form the composition of a particular classroom group

the following year, an unconscious desire exists to establish structural stability, coordination, and functional operativeness. Children may appear to quarrel, argue, and engage in constant disputes, but in truth they are trying to establish norms and a commonality of expectations and values. A major means of effecting unity is to establish common agreement among all members on the goals and values of the group. If communication is severely restricted in the classroom, and if teachers take no action to facilitate the development of unity, then group members are forced to try to achieve this condition outside the classroom at times when communication is less controlled. If conditions prevent group integration, or at least hinder its development, one or more individuals may take action to relieve the frustrating situation which is created by the group's inability to achieve unity and functional operativeness.

The student in the incident which follows helped the group adapt to a very frustrating situation. He misbehaved in a way which was approved by the group, and his behavior reduced the pressure caused by the group's failure to achieve unity. For a short time the group was united in common action when all members joined together to create a chaotic situation.

This was my first semester of teaching and the class I received was a mixture from four different teachers. The class showed resentment and antagonism toward one another and towards me as the teacher. The main source of trouble seemed to be a large boy named Richard who was an A5 in this A5-B6 class. He had the habit, at any moment of the day, of throwing objects across the room. The class usually reacted in like manner, so that chaos would prevail for a while.

The class seemed to resent the cliques which developed in the room by members from the former room; this was shown in their classroom and yard behavior. They would come into the room arguing and end up by saying, "You always stick together!", or something which indicated that some small groups of students were resented.

When Richard would begin throwing things, or calling out, or doing something he should not do, the class joined him, cliques and all. The children seemed to enjoy joining in and creating complete confusion. All lines of separation between children from various rooms seemed to disappear for a short time.

It is possible that Richard might have thrown objects across the room even though the group had developed unity and did not need to relieve pressure. However, a unified and cooperative group which had developed appropriate norms of classroom behavior would

strongly disapprove such behavior and act to change Richard's actions. Most likely, Richard took to throwing things and to creating a highly relaxed situation to relieve a sensed pressure in the group although he was not aware of what it was that caused him to behave as he did. The appropriate method for changing Richard's behavior would be to change the conditions which cause it.

Groups that experience frustration and failure because efforts to integrate are frustrated or blocked react in different ways. Classroom groups at times are passive and indifferent. Conditions can change, however, if an individual transfers to the class who is not content with unsatisfactory conditions and who attempts to change the situation. In the next incident, passivity and indifference was relieved somewhat by the actions of a student new to the class who adapted to the situation by reacting aggressively. Again, the student was a problem because the group responded to him favorably. If conditions in the classroom system had been corrected, chances were that this student would have behaved in a much more acceptable manner.

At the first of the semester, the class group soon settled down and worked with very few disruptions. There were no problem children, and, in fact, it was an unusually quiet class. It was sometimes difficult to get them to respond and show interest. The only trouble that ever occurred was in the playground. These youngsters were never quiet and docile when out of the classroom.

Then a boy transferred to our school during mid-semester. After he came, the class was never the way it was before. He interrupted many lessons with his smarty remarks and show-off mannerisms. The other children thought that his behavior was humorous. When spoken to, he would answer sounding as if disgusted—no matter what the question or remark. His behavior affected others. Sometimes they laughed, and at other times they would suppress him, but always with tolerance and acceptance. He became a real problem, and no amount of disciplining seemed to affect his behavior.

A teacher who recognized that group influence assists in the control of inappropriate behavior would ask what could be done so that a class group would disapprove the actions of one disturbing individual whose behavior is described in the following illustration.

The class leader of my particular room is constantly passing notes, chewing gum, talking, laughing out loud, and doing other disturbing things. His power as a negative leader amazingly is accepted by the majority of the class group,

and together the group opposes the disciplinary measures of the teacher to maintain order.

This boy is intelligent but known for his bullylike tactics, and often is silly. Yet he still has the classroom regarding him with favor on most occasions. Other boys do not dare oppose his popularity, and a sociogram indicates the sincere, favorable feelings of the class toward him.

To maintain some control of this situation, the teacher has talked with this boy, but generally to no avail. The teacher and this boy have often clashed in the room. Because of the class reaction to the boy this has not been successful in controlling his behavior.

How does a teacher get the group behind him to put this leader on the spot and make him straighten up?

Of course, the problem in the preceding incident was not the boy. It is quite clear that he rebelled against teacher authority and received the applause and approval of the group for so doing. The teacher recognized him as a leader, although she also perceived him as a bully. It is not uncommon for teachers to feel that children who behave as this one did must somehow bully or force children to approve of their actions. Teachers resort to this explanation even though evidence is lacking because they can find no suitable explanation to account for group acceptance and approval.

The class in the preceding incident appears to have achieved unity and solidarity. The mode of adaptation to classroom conditions suggests that the source of the group difficulties was the teacher's control practices.

There are times when a group comes into the class on the first day and exhibits behavior similar to that described in the illustrations. Of course, the source of the dissatisfaction is neither the teacher nor her control practices, since she has not previously been with the group. These resistant, hostile reactions can be related to the children's previous experiences. If individuals in the classroom group expect the working conditions to be unpleasant, the operations of the group often are directed toward developing a more satisfactory state of affairs. Often the method is to approve the misbehavior of some members. The more united the group, and the more it appears that the state of affairs is unsatisfactory, the more essential it becomes for members of the group to act together to improve conditions. Thus it is that some groups enter the classroom on the first day showing a unity of action even though the group structure is a new one.

The psychological energy of the group takes many directions but in general the force of the group is directed toward achieving integration, cooperation, and a satisfactory psychological state.

When the group is blocked in these efforts, frustration results. One method of relieving this frustration is for one or more of the children to act for the group to reduce the pressure caused by the frustration. Teachers' energies often are exerted toward taking action against these individuals in an effort to control their behavior. This misdirected teacher energy results in more group satisfaction, since the conflict is a losing one for the teacher, but it results in lowered teacher efficiency and effectiveness, and individual productivity and achievement is substantially reduced. By using appropriate facilitative and maintenance practices, there will be many fewer problem individuals in classroom groups.

## THE CLASSROOM GROUP

A formally organized collection of people engaging in interaction over a period of time is a *group*. It appears that some classroom groups need a very short interaction period before their behavior becomes patterned and members develop expectations concerning one another's behavior. Because of the nature of classroom groupings, children quickly identify one another as members of the same social entity. A classroom group may be defined as a number of individuals who have a collective perception of their unity and who tend to act in a unitary manner toward the school environment. The term *group* refers to any method of organizing children for instructional purposes. These groups may be in self-contained classrooms, or they may be grouped in various ways throughout the day. Whatever the organization, they may be characterized as having frequent interaction; recognizing that they are a part of the group; being labeled by others as belonging to this particular group; being strongly unified but often exhibiting solidarity; developing norms, particularly those which oppose certain school standards; identifying with other members even though not to a strongly cohesive degree; usually struggling to make the group rewarding by pursuing interdependent group goals; and, frequently acting in a unitary manner toward the school environment. In whatever grade, class, or grouping children are placed, the individuals are affected in many ways by their membership in the grade or grouping. The impact is great because it involves a large portion of children's lives.

For many reasons the classroom group is one of the most important groups in the life of a child. If it fulfills his developing needs, he becomes an active, satisfied, contributing learner. If the child's affective needs are not satisfied to a large extent by the class group and its activities, very little learning occurs and some children will leave as soon as the law allows.

To a great extent the kind of group to which a child is assigned determines his behavior patterns, for groups regulate the behavior of members by a system of controls. Some controls are negative in that members are induced to behave in certain ways because, if they do not, they will be subjected to ridicule, deprivations of various sorts, or in extreme cases, ostracism. Individuals who desire to belong are sensitive to the favorable judgment of other group members and to their opinions and responses; therefore, withholding recognition, respect, and approval are very effective methods of control. Some group controls are positive; for instance, group approval as shown by favorable responses to individuals who act to improve group conditions. In any case, groups regulate the behavior of individuals so that behavior will conform to the group-determined patterns. Children's self-esteem, their sense of worth, and their feeling of dignity depend to a large extent upon the status of the school groupings in which they are placed. The nature of the group, then, is an important aspect of the relation between children and the group. It affects both the functioning of the group and its significance for children.

When collections of children are organized into various divisions for instructional purposes, they are sufficiently interdependent to be called groups. These groups have properties. Properties of groups are the variables or elements which can be observed and measured. Just as certain properties are used to study individuals and their behavior (such as intelligence, personality, and so forth), so various elements have been isolated to study groups.

Properties include such variables as cohesiveness, interaction, communication, structure, norms, and goals; they have dimensions, i.e., they vary in extent, degree, or in quality. The concern of much group research is with the measurement of various group properties to determine various group dimensions. Since group properties are interrelated, the degree, extent, or size of one element influences all other elements, and this creates a dimensional aspect. As stated before, a group is more than the sum total of its constituent members. This is to say that a description of the qualities or characteristics of each individual member and a totaling of these qualities does not present a true picture of the group in which these individuals are members.

Although each classroom group differs from others in some respect, an adequate description of the behavior of a certain class group must be made in relation to the properties or variables characteristic of all classroom organizations. These properties are not static, fixed qualities, and their interrelatedness must be considered. They vary in degree and direction and have different dimensions. Specific characteristics, that is, the features or qualities that identify and are peculiar to a particular kind of group and that distinguish

the group from other kinds of groups must also be considered. Classroom groups possess certain distinct characteristics that make them different from all other groups. However, each class group differs from every other class group, and even though a group may have a number of characteristics in common with others they will vary in extent or degree and will relate to one another in different ways. The interrelatedness of properties and characteristics produces differential effects, and each group is affected by numerous factors such as the teachers' control patterns, the physical setting, the size of the group, spatial relations, and various other environmental factors.

A thorough understanding of how and why a particular group behaves the way it does cannot be developed merely by defining or describing group properties and characteristics because these properties and characteristics function interdependently and are affected by many factors that may be present in the situations in which the group is found. The interdependency of the properties and characteristics and the related factors which influence group and individual behavior are extremely important.

There is no easy way to quickly and yet adequately develop a clearcut concept of a group and how it functions. However, a beginning can be made by discussing the properties of groups and the forces they exert in the functioning of classroom organizations.

## FORCES OPERATING IN GROUPS

Teachers who hope to develop effective management practices must have some understanding of the forces operating in groups. Whether the children in a classroom will cooperate or whether they will resist the teachers' efforts is determined to a large degree by the nature of the group itself. Some classroom groups are unattractive and the work situation is not satisfying to members. For individuals to want to change their way of behaving in these classes it is necessary to change many properties of the group itself—cohesiveness, communication patterns, the group structure, management practices, and the over-all emotional climate. Sometimes the classroom situation is unattractive, yet the classroom groups exert a strong influence upon member behavior. The members show solidarity in resisting teacher efforts. Sometimes groups are indifferent and apathetic and this has an effect on individual behavior. Teacher efforts to change conditions can be blocked or supported by group pressure exerted on members.

If group practices are to be used constructively to change undesirable classroom behavior to more desirable behavior, or to behavior which enhances the learning climate, teachers must have



considerable knowledge of the forces which produce certain effects in classroom groups. There are many factors which affect group behavior, and before teachers can develop management practices which improve the classroom situation, they must recognize how these forces operate.

In order to increase the teacher's ability to diagnose the forces at work in classroom groups and to aid them so that they can constructively employ group techniques, the findings from research and literature which are especially relevant to effective management practices are briefly summarized in the section which follows. How effective teachers are in improving classroom conditions, and how successful they are in changing poor group behavior patterns will depend greatly upon whether they develop the ability to diagnose the causes for poor behavior patterns.

## Group Unity

The chances that the group will exert pressure on members to behave one way rather than another will increase if the group is strongly cohesive or unified. Cohesiveness is a concept of central importance to the understanding of group behavior. It is related to many aspects of group life, including communication, change of attitude or opinion, operation of group standards, and pressures toward uniformity. Cohesive groups are more affected by group decision and problem-solving processes, and members of cohesive groups change more than those in groups low in cohesiveness. The use of strong, dominative practices to change cohesive groups generally increases group unity; in fact, if a teacher imposes rules and regulations in an attempt to change behavior, the class may either withdraw or retaliate with open hostility. When groups are non-cohesive or are split into subgroup structures, the use of dominative or competitive practices serves only to increase the lack of group harmony. Cohesiveness can be stimulated by a number of internal and external means—by helping the members become aware of the forces influencing them or by helping them to become aware of the strength of attraction they have for each other. One way of unifying the group is, then, to make the group more attractive and increase the members' liking for the group as well as for one another.

## Interaction and Communication

Because it is generally concluded that the teacher sets the stage for the interaction pattern, the studies of group interaction and communication have important implications for teachers who are concerned over the amount and kind of interaction which occurs

in classrooms. Although interaction is something more than verbal or nonverbal communication, it is through communication that interaction takes place. When group members have opinions which diverge from those of the majority, a large amount of communication is directed toward them. The magnitude of the pressure to communicate increases in relation to the degree of relevance of the item to the functioning of the group. There is some evidence to support the view that when groups are in an emotional state, there is a great impulse to communicate, and that attempts to restrain communication rather than to guide it are seldom successful.

What does this signify to the teacher who is concerned because the class group sometimes behaves in a way that impedes the learning program? It means that if the behavior creating the problem is of the kind in which the class members seem to argue and seem to be in conflict over some situation which has occurred, the group members are attempting to maintain or to increase group integration. If reaching agreement is very important to the class group, the members will not settle down to work on school tasks until a satisfactory solution has been reached. Time will be saved in the long run, if the teacher helps the group reach a solution. If the teacher tries to force the group members to return to work on their school tasks when the individuals in the class feel very strongly about the situation, it is unlikely that the group members will work willingly or be very productive. Usually more time is lost than if the teacher puts aside the customary assignments and helps the group solve its problem.

*Teachers' Communication Processes.* Communication in class groups takes place by means of speech and language, and by symbols and cues such as movements, gestures, facial expressions, and tone of voice. Since communication is important to understanding group behavior as well as to management processes, it will be helpful to examine briefly the developmental sequence of the speaker-hearer relationship without resorting to the use of a technical vocabulary.

Communication involves, first of all, information which the speaker wishes to communicate. Not only is there information to communicate, but usually there is intent to communicate thoughts, ideas, and feelings as well. For example, if someone states, "It is going to rain," he may intend to indicate he is pleased or unhappy or, as the case may be, he may wish to convey the idea he does not think a picnic is a good idea on this particular day.

Once there is something to communicate, the person communicating must decide the form it will take. Perhaps no words are needed. For example, a thumbs-down gesture or a lifted eyebrow may transmit the message better than conventionalized language. (Sometimes teachers let the class group know they wish the class

to come to attention by standing and looking at the class without saying anything.) Usually the rendition of the message is a composite of speech, facial expressions, posture, and gestures. In other words, the person sending the message gives many clues as to his thoughts and feelings. This means that the hearer must make interpretations of what he sees and hears. For example, the first grade children were being weighed and measured soon after the opening of school. After her turn, a little girl said to the teacher, "The nurse says I'm the tallest girl in the room." The teacher, being very perceptive, recognized the child was questioning the statement of the nurse and that she was unable to determine whether it was good or bad to be the tallest girl. When the teacher told her she was fortunate to be tall and gave some reasons, the child said no more but made a little skip as she went toward her seat, which indicated that she was happy and satisfied with the teacher's response.

Numerous barriers and distractions may operate to reduce the effectiveness of communication. To overcome distractions, the sender may have to resort to repetition, increasing the volume, or exaggerating in some way. Barriers may reduce the effectiveness of the message or cause parts of it to be lost in the sending. In the previous example, had the teacher been occupied with something which required her complete attention at that moment, she might not have caught the intention of the remark or recognized that the child was somewhat concerned over what had been said to her. A distraction could have caused the questioning part of the message to be lost. Another example might be given of a teacher giving clear, precise instructions regarding some aspect of school work. The message may be lost in the transmission if, at the same time, the majority of class members are distracted by the fact that a monitor is standing behind the teacher obviously waiting to make an announcement as soon as the instructions are completed. Even when the message is transmitted without meeting a barrier, the listener or the receiver of the message must interpret what he sees or hears. What he sees or hears depends upon his background and perceptions. An inadequate background may cause the receiver to interpret the message falsely.

After the receiver gets the message, he reacts to it. His response is a direct expression of the way he interprets the message. A multitude of individual behavior problems may result because children react according to their own personal interpretations rather than to what is actually said or done. When it is possible for children to communicate freely whenever they feel the need, many problems are avoided or solved. A teacher's job is not to restrict or prevent communication, but to see that communication patterns are developed which facilitate and promote cooperative relationships. This is not to say that there are no restrictions

or controls, a lack of which would lead to disorganization and confusion. It means that teachers must recognize the need for communication and allow group members to speak freely when situations are unclear to them.

*Effects.* Communication in class groups is both verbal and non-verbal. The type of communication pattern employed in a class group determines the amount, frequency, duration, direction, and content of the communication. Communication and the kind of behavior exhibited by a class are related. Failure to provide for adequate communication can produce tension, frustration, and problem behavior, whereas good communication among group members can reduce tension and frustration. Barriers to communication are associated with groups that do not achieve harmony or agreement and that do not cooperate. Inadequate and limited communication and lack of feedback explain why some teachers cannot effectively reach their students therefore do not establish productive working conditions.

## Group Structure

Even though informal subgroups exist within the formal class group structure, the classroom can have an over-all cohesiveness. When some group members are always relegated to low positions in the structure, the communication pattern is affected and strong power structures may be created. When fixed classroom groupings offer little opportunity for upward locomotion of individuals the over-all group cohesiveness is lessened.

The interrelationship between the formal status structuring of the group and group cohesiveness has been clearly demonstrated. If a class group is organized so that some children are elevated to high-status positions and some are relegated to low positions in the hierarchy, the group will not be attractive to some members. When the group is not attractive to members, it has little influence upon member behavior; therefore an attempt to use group power to change member behavior will encounter very little success.

## Group Goals

Group goals are important in determining group behavior. These goals are the ends toward which an organized grouping works to develop a stabilized set of relationships. When the education goals of the school and the goals of the classroom group are in conflict, the group goals, which induce motivational forces upon members, tend to be the more powerful. The management pattern either facilitates or hinders group development and

achievement of goals. Groups show little motivation to work toward imposed goals, unless, of course, opportunity has been provided for groups to achieve satisfactory relations among the members. When the teacher of a class group facilitates group participation, and when task goals are determined cooperatively, members are more productive and willing to work on educational tasks.

This is another way of saying that a class's concern with the nontask goals of group building and maintenance may supersede its concern for regular school-task goals. Also, this means that even though some individuals may not work willingly to achieve certain desired educational goals, these members may be motivated to do so if the teacher uses group practices and helps the class to establish group goals. In other words, a child will perform regular school tasks, in many cases, if these tasks help the group achieve its goals.

## Control Practices

Control or management practices employed in the classroom are often inappropriate to the nature of the problems with which teachers are dealing. These individualistic control practices consist of trying to make individual children behave in desired ways without first considering the effect of group influence on the behavior of the individual. Also, present practices for controlling individuals do not take into account the effects these attempts have on other group members, and upon the group as a whole.

Punitive actions taken against individuals is a good example of trying to control behavior in a way that fails to take into account the effect such a method has on the behavior of others. The following example shows how actions taken against children caused an emotional reaction in the class, and affected the progress of work and study.

Our safeties are suffering from overzealousness. They have taken it upon themselves to admonish violators and pass out penalties. The safeties not only correct the children for standard infractions, but also for behavior which they deem undesirable. When asked about their penalties, they explain that the teachers never do anything about their reports. "All teachers say is, 'I'll take care of it,' but they never do." When queried about their self added behavior codes, they answer that "the kids don't know how to act right." Individuals go into their classes every day so angry they cannot work.

Some practices do not take into account the characteristics of groups and the effect the practices may have on unity, cooperative relations, interaction patterns, and so forth. When unity is af-

affected, for example, numerous other conditions in the group are affected also. The following incident provides a good example of what occurs when inappropriate actions are taken to resolve a management problem.

This was my second day of a long-term substitute job in a sixth grade class. During social studies, one of the boys, Jim, tried to walk out of the room without permission. I caught up with him before he got out of the door. I grabbed him and sat him down hard in a nearby chair.

At this, the class became very excited and upset. They all began to talk at once and say this was not the proper way to handle a pupil. They very vehemently claimed I had no right to do what I did. When I could quiet them down, I asked them what they suggested I should do if they did not like the procedure I had used.

At first they merely reiterated their previous remarks. Grabbing a boy and handling him roughly was not a teacher's prerogative. To the repeated question, "What do you suggest a teacher should do in place of this?" someone finally suggested that the boy be tried by a judge and jury of his classmates. They appointed a judge, a lawyer to prosecute, and a lawyer for the defense. I was called as a witness.

The defense lawyer did not have a very good case. The jury found Jim guilty and sentenced him to copying fifty definitions of words from the dictionary. From then on, every time I caught someone behaving out of turn, I handed him over to a jury of his classmates who set the punishment.

It was a good thing I accidentally stumbled on this way of handling this class, since there was always a good deal of fighting, quarreling, and name calling. Since the defense process took too long, it was soon abandoned and a jury took over sentencing individuals who stepped out of line in any way, or who fought and called names.

It might be noted that deciding on a method of punishment did not answer the question of what to do if a child decides to walk out of the room. The problem was never solved. In fact, it appears that the group acted on a different problem.

The idea of having the students plan the punishment for their own classmates succeeded in shifting the teacher's responsibility to the children. It settled the problem of what to do with children who did not behave in accordance with desired practice, but it also created other problems. It can be predicted accurately that the human potential in this class was tapped to a very low degree.

Order of a sort was preserved at the expense of individual learning and achievement.

Teachers should possess the fundamental skill of diagnosing group difficulties and sensing needed missing functions. Also, teachers have to learn to notice group difficulties, to carefully diagnose what is blocking action or causing difficulty, and to act appropriately on the diagnosis.

Observation of teacher practices and an analysis of reports indicate that teachers employ a variety of practices when groups have problems both in the social-emotional area and in the area of goal achievement. It is possible for the teacher to establish a hierarchical arrangement of practices to be used when groups face problems and respond in unsatisfactory or undesirable ways. (See Figure 3). These practices range from punitive or threatening practices which, of course, are the poorest techniques to use in handling problems involving the group, to cooperative or participatory practices which research has proved to be the best practices available. The method of ignoring any major group difficulty usually has an extremely harmful effect upon group morale and often leads to aggression and hostility. Although it is placed second in the hierarchy, it may be the poorest practice to follow.

The type of control practices employed in classrooms, then, has a decided effect upon the behavior of class groups. Dominative and pressuring practices result in surface submission and underlying resentment, and individuals assume little responsibility for their own actions. In response to divertive or ignoring practices, group members resort to scapegoating, unrest, and aggression. It is generally agreed that punitive practices change only the surface behavior at the moment and that other undesirable behavior usually follows the use of threats or force. Cooperative or positive practices are much superior and must be employed for changing the attitudes and behavior of group members. These practices generally result in a friendlier group atmosphere and a happier and more productive group.

A group, when placed under pressure or when frustrated, will often display feelings of hostility which it will direct toward an unpopular member or toward a subgroup. Scapegoating is often a symptom that a group is under undue pressure. Another group reaction to stress is to applaud the antics of a class clown. The applauding can be a means of expressing hostility, or it may relieve tension. Groups that fear to express hostility sometimes incite one member to rebel openly. The group may secretly or openly approve and applaud the rebel's behavior. Teachers who attempt to punish or control individuals who are expressing the general feelings existing in the group only increase group hostility and create further incidents of undesirable behavior.

FIGURE 3  
PRACTICES USED TO CONTROL CLASSROOM  
BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS

---

I Punitive or Threatening Practices

1. Punishing by force, restraint or expulsion.
2. Using threats or imposing restrictions.
3. Using sarcasm or ridicule.
4. Punishing an individual as an example.
5. Forcing apologies or using other means.

II Divertive or Ignoring Practices

6. *Overlooking behavior or doing nothing.*
7. Changing composition of group by removing members.
8. Shifting responsibility for group behavior to a member.
9. Switching activities to avoid behavior.
10. Diverting behavior by other means.

III Dominative or Pressuring Practices

11. Commanding, scolding, or reproaching group.
12. Utilizing pressure of authority persons (parents-principal).
13. Singling out individuals for expressions of disapproval.
14. Expressing disapproval of group by words, looks, action.
15. Coercing, making conditional promises.
16. Utilizing praise as comparison as means of pressure.
17. Delegating power to pupils to impose control.
18. Appealing, cajoling, moralizing, or other means.

IV Cooperative or Participatory Practices

19. Guiding group toward examination of behavior.
  20. Creating in group an awareness of the problem.
  21. Helping group clarify problem.
  22. Guiding group in diagnosis of the problem.
  23. Helping group establish goals and intentions of actions.
  24. Helping group improve techniques for resolving conflicts and solving problems.
- 

Imitative behavior is often the result of tension, boredom, or some other unpleasant state of affairs. Under such conditions, one member sometimes exhibits an undesirable behavior which is imitated by a majority of the other members. On the other hand, when the group climate is good, cooperative behavior is contagious also and is imitated by others. Good behavior is just as catching as is poor behavior.

None of these behavior patterns, when evident in a classroom, can be changed by an application of a particular technique be-



cause they are the result of numerous interrelated factors. The chief source of difficulty, however, often stems from the type of leadership used in the group. To use one example: children in class groups at times face strange or threatening situations which result in noncooperative or nonadaptive behavior. A teacher who is insensitive to the emotional factors involved may criticize, threaten, or punish the group members for such noncooperative or nonadaptive reactions. A teacher with insight, however, will discern the causes or sources of the behavior and will attempt to work with the group to prevent further outbreaks. Studies which have examined nonadaptive group behavior conclude that when such situations occur they should be followed by a group study of the behavior and that groups should be helped to decide on a better course of action for the future. Panic behavior results from pushing and screaming. This causes others to see that their interests are being threatened, and they quickly imitate those who are pushing and screaming, thereby setting off a spiral action. Groups can be helped to understand panic behavior and, in fact, if made to understand their behavior in other ways can be taught to face a variety of threatening situations in a cooperative fashion. Even though he lacks training, a teacher who normally uses cooperative practices in the class group will usually recognize the need to help groups in stressful, threatening, or fearful situations and will not use threats or force because the group does not react in an acceptable manner.

Research has made progress in understanding the techniques and practices of leadership. The studies show that all persons, to varying degrees, can learn and use leadership skill and group techniques. The teacher's attitude will affect the extent to which success is achieved; a teacher who believes that children must learn to obey and conform and who uses power instead of skill will not relinquish these traditional control practices easily—if at all. On the other hand, a teacher who uses force and threats because he lacks skill and understanding can develop insight and improve his leadership techniques through training and experience if he sincerely desires to do so.

Before any change in group behavior is attempted, the teacher must make a diagnosis of the source of the difficulty. If the group is showing symptoms of hostility, aggression, or undue pressure, the teacher must ascertain if the cause of the frustration is a result of his practices with the group. In many cases, a behavior change can be brought about by a change in the teacher's methods. It is difficult for the individual teacher to change his established ways of behaving and thereby relieve group tensions. To do this he must be sincerely committed to the idea that the children in the class group can be helped to assume some responsibility for

their own behavior, and that group techniques will work in many kinds of situations to bring about more acceptable patterns of behavior. If a teacher is not able to develop a diagnostic sensitivity to the emotional climate of the group, he will not be able to improve behavior patterns which involve scapegoating, rebellious behavior, and similar reactions. Therefore, to change this kind of classroom behavior the teacher must develop insight into the causes of the misbehavior and then change his teaching methods.

## Group Climate

The group atmosphere or climate is an outcome of the inter-related aspects of groups, or, stated differently, the product of all the forces at work in a group. If the structure is rigidly controlled, for example, subgroups may develop norms for behavior which are in conflict with the norms of the large group. The atmosphere of the group then, would be characterized by arguments, fights, and intergroup hostility. All in all, group climate is determined in large measure by the degree of cohesiveness, which in turn is affected by the communication patterns, by the structure, and by other properties of the group. All of these properties are somewhat influenced by the group composition, and greatly influenced by the leadership practices employed. Perhaps it seems that much of what has been said is repetitious, but so many combinations of factors affect the group interaction processes in so many different ways that the various possibilities cannot be demonstrated without some restatement. One condition is quite clear, however. The group climate is directly dependent upon the cohesiveness of the group, and a strongly cohesive group controls many aspects of a member's behavior. A teacher cannot bring about a group awareness of the need for change, or use the group as a medium for change, unless the climate is favorable.

## FACTORS RELATING TO RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Research indicates that once group standards for behaving have been established by the group itself, teachers or leaders who attempt to modify these standards may encounter considerable resistance as a result of certain forces operating within the group. These forces may block the efforts which are made to change a well-established way of behaving. A teacher wishing to redirect the behavior of the group into more desirable patterns must recognize these forces because change cannot be effected unless they are understood and taken into consideration.

For those teachers and others who believe that behavior is best changed or modified by the use of force or pressure exerted by the group leader, it is necessary to repeat once again that practices of this sort do not *change* behavior. The use of force or pressure may *control* behavior but it does not have a permanent effect. When group standards are already well established, attempts to exert pressure are usually met with decided resistance by the group. If groups are punished for maintaining their set standards, the experience tends to weld the members more closely together and enables the group to withstand the punishment. If individuals in the group are punished for behaving according to accepted group norms, these individuals usually are the recipients of group sympathy, praise, and applause. The status of the individuals sustaining the punishment may be raised for a time. The sympathy and group approval generally satisfies these individuals enough to render punishment useless. Punishment of either the group or individuals in the group provokes enough support to counteract any pressure the punishment was designed to exert. Later attempts to change behavior by lectures, personal appeals, or even by the use of group influence are also rendered useless because the group is now more firmly committed than ever to its own standards for behavior.

## The Relevance of Change to Group Needs

Attempts to influence change are usually unsuccessful if the desired changes do not make the group more attractive to its members. Teachers who try, for example, to use group influence to stop communication between group members are doomed to failure. The group will not exert pressure upon members to behave in a manner that is not in the best interests of the group. The behavior changes must be relevant to group needs. However, the group may use its influence to regulate talking during certain periods if the group members perceive that the curtailment of communication at these times will better the situation for the group as a whole. For example, a teacher cites an incident which illustrates this point very well.

We used the three-group system for reading in my sixth grade class. Although this is an especially well-behaved group, it seemed to me that the talking that went on in the groups which were working while one group worked with me could not help but be annoying to some individuals. Let me explain that this talking or noise does not come from individuals who are playing around and not working. For the most part it comes about because couples are checking

their work or helping one another, or because two or three people are taking turns reading aloud. The room is not large and there are thirty-eight pupils in the class. We had agreed on this way of working but it seemed that lately the buzz coming from the work groups was becoming a little louder everyday.

Finally I decided to put the proposition to the class that perhaps our way of working during reading study periods was not as successful as it might be. So recently I asked the class to consider this suggestion. I asked if the over-all noise or confusion during study period created any problems for individuals. Perhaps I did not state the problem correctly; anyway, the general and immediate reaction was a denial. Various children said that even when they were working alone on questions and answers or reading to themselves, the fact that there was a fairly loud buzzing in the room did not disturb them in the least. After the group discussed this and seemed to be in complete agreement, there appeared to be no reason to change. It seemed that I was the only one who became distracted because of the work noise!

It was about two days later when an interesting thing happened. Kathy, who is perhaps the most popular girl in the room and a very fine student, spoke out just as we were changing from another activity to reading. Her remark was to the effect that she noticed it was difficult to concentrate on seat work when the noise in the room became loud. Immediately some other children in the room agreed with her. When the class was asked how they wished to handle the problem, the majority were reluctant to change the work procedures but they did agree that all persons must keep their voices very low and if the noise could not be reduced in this manner that perhaps the reading aloud to one another would have to be limited to one or two groups of two people each.

The results have been remarkable. The buzzing has been cut down to no more than a hum. So far there has been no need to recheck with the group to see if the results are satisfactory. Everyone appears to be well satisfied with the work conditions and cutting down the noise seems to present no problems to those who like to work together.

This incident not only demonstrates the power of an influential group member, but it also illustrates the force of group influence in matters which are relevant to the group. This class group liked its plan of working and did not wish to change it. Perhaps when

the teacher asked the group about the noise during the work period, the class interpreted the question to mean that if it agreed that the noise was disturbing it might be asked to change the plan. The girl who reopened the question referred only to the amount of noise without questioning the adequacy of the plan. Presented as a problem of too much noise rather than a problem of work arrangement, the group was able to rectify the problem and change its behavior without changing the work plan.

## The Communication Factor

Poor communication between the teacher and the group may act as a strong force in preventing changes in group behavior. When change is desired, the way the teacher presents the problem often determines whether the group will perceive the need for change or whether it will resist change. The manner in which the problem is stated, that is, the tone of voice, and other cues, tell the group whether to communicate back an already formulated solution or whether to actually try and solve the difficulty. For example, teachers comment frequently that their groups do not adhere to their own standards for behavior. They say that groups develop desirable standards and then behave in a consistent, but entirely different way. Although many of these teachers honestly may have tried to help their groups develop their own behavior standards, they may have failed to communicate this fact to the groups themselves.

Over and over teachers report such incidents as the following:

Group standards have been established by this class and we review them daily, but no matter how often we discuss the matter, the class comes roaring into the room every morning and noon, and after every recess and P. E. period. It always takes a lot of time to get the class settled down.

If the group was cohesive and if it had actually established a norm for behaving, the group pressure would have acted as a source of influence upon members and the group would have adhered to the standards established. Presumably these standards refer to quiet ways of behaving and perhaps to the need for getting ready for work quickly. It is evident from the description of these behavior problems that the actual norms established by the groups are quite the opposite. Why does a class group develop a set of behavioral rules and then ignore them? The cause seems to stem from poor communication between the teacher and the class group.

For purposes of illustration let us suppose that the standards were set for the class in the previous incident in the following

way. The remarks are shortened and perhaps slightly exaggerated, but essentially the practice described is one used by many teachers; standards established in this manner are rarely, if ever, effective.

Teacher: Class, every day after we have been out of the room, we come in noisily and it takes us as long as five minutes before we settle down and get ready for work. I believe we need to establish some standards to follow when we come into the room. What do you think? Tom?

Tom: We need to make some standards.

Teacher: What do the rest of you think? (Various class members indicate that they agree that standards are needed.)

Teacher: Now, how should we come into the room? Mary?

Mary: We should come in quietly.

Teacher: Do you agree, Jack? (Jack is a noisy member but he agrees with Mary.)

Teacher: Since we agree, our first standard is, "We come into the room quietly." (The teacher writes the statement on the board.)

Teacher: After we come into the room quietly, what do you think we should do next? Janet, do you have any ideas?

Janet: (Since Janet is not sure what answer the teacher desires, her suggestion is stated in a questioning tone.) Maybe we could practice our spelling until it is time to begin our lesson.

Teacher: (This is not the exact answer she wants.) Do you think that is the best thing we could do in the morning, for example? What do you say, Sue?

Sue: Well, in the morning we could get ready for reading and after recess we could get ready for spelling.

Teacher: (beaming) That is a fine suggestion. We get ready for our next class. (This is the second standard.)

This procedure continues until all the standards desired by the teacher are written on the board. They are reviewed by the class and the teacher tells the group they have made a fine set of behavioral rules. However, when they fail to improve the class behavior, the teacher cannot understand why the group does not follow the rules when they established these rules themselves.

The teacher's opening statement made it clear to the group that the members came in noisily (according to her view) and were slow getting ready for work. When the class members responded to her request for suggestions, they gave the answers that the teacher had indicated she desired. Even though some members

might have believed that their suggestions were the best way to behave at these times, their remarks were perceived by other members not as true beliefs but as teacher answers.

## The Effect of Popular Members

A group norm or a standard way of group behaving cannot be redirected into a more desirable behavior pattern by attempting to change a single individual or a subgroup. Although at times a high-prestige individual may exert strong influence upon the group, efforts of a teacher to change the group by changing such an individual will usually be met with resistance. Some teachers do try to change or influence class behavior through a popular person who is attractive to his fellow classmates. It may be recalled from the study of norm behavior that research shows the group exerts a tremendous influence upon members to conform to its standards of behavior. If a member (or members) deviates too far from the norms, the result is rejection or expulsion. The studies show also that a popular member can deviate from norms to a greater degree than a less popular member; nevertheless, when the norm is of consequence to the group, a child whose behavior runs counter to the standard is penalized by the group. Certainly these studies indicate that the group will take action against a student who does not conform to group norms because he is trying to please the teacher.

Evidence shows that well-liked individuals owe their popularity, at least in part, to the fact that they perceive and conform to the group's expectations of the best ways to behave. Teachers who attempt to control group behavior by changing the behavior of a popular member, and who believe that this member will then influence the group and cause it to change, are using a method which is usually totally ineffective. Probably the member will not change his way of behaving but should he change he is apt to lose his popularity and exert little influence upon the group. Groups that perceive a member is not adhering to its norms because of teacher pressures or because he prefers the teacher's approval, will not be influenced by the member.

Usually children in class groups want the approval of both the teacher and the group, but because the group can exert such tremendous pressure upon a member, most prefer the disapproval of the teacher to that of the group.

A teacher who puts pressure upon popular children to change their behavior is placing them in a most difficult and unfair position. These children must choose to lose the regard of either the teacher or the group. This choice may cause these individuals to develop tensions or to become aggressive toward the group or the

Whether its influence is consciously recognized or not, the organizational structure of the school has great bearing on individual children and on the classroom group. Teachers' perceptions of this same organization differ widely. Some see policy as restricting their teaching, others use it as a guideline along which to operate.

The classroom—teachers and learners—is affected by the organization of the school as a whole. The influential factors include grouping; curriculum; the physical plant; rules and regulations; and informal values, attitudes, and actions.

The organization of the school affects the behavior that occurs in the classroom. It is within the province of the organizers to give the human and material elements of the school order and relationship. To a greater or lesser extent, the results will be observable. If, for example, the "low" sixth grades believe they do not have the same opportunities to utilize desired play areas, the cafeteria, or instructional materials as does the "high" section of the class, feelings of dissatisfaction and frustration may erupt in the classroom.

The effects of the organization of a school upon each of its classrooms is better understood by examining the school as a social organization. The school is subsystem within the school district, and it is from the larger organization that each school derives some of its qualities—an authority structure, a statement or formulation of an ideology or educational philosophy, and both a regulatory and adaptive plan. The latter provides a way in which the school can control or regulate its work and personnel and also adapt to changing environments and requirements.

## Norms, Policies and Rules

Norms develop as a result of the interaction process and of pressures to conform.

Members of groups develop shared ways of looking at the world, in much the way that an individual does in the socialization process. These common values, ideas, and feelings are *norms*. Norms refer to the tendencies of a group to respond in a given way—be it positive, negative, or in between—situations, behavior, or information. Norms influence the behavior of an individual to the degree that he believes that the group holds and accepts the norm.

We have looked at the relationship between the teacher and pupil and between the teacher and the class group. Now we will examine the relationship of the school as a whole and the teacher with the class group.

Bonds other than the organizational structure of the school hold the professional staff and the students together—daily contacts which continue over weeks . . . months result in close relation-



ships, the following of general roles based on tradition, a somewhat cooperative endeavor of teacher and student to improve the student's learning, and so forth.

The term *norms* refers to common beliefs of an evaluative type which constitute a coherent interrelated syndrome. An example of a norm is the expectation that students of a given school will recognize and approve the attractive appearance of the school building and grounds and, further, will be individually responsive to and cooperative in maintaining the institution's appearance. Their behavior is "good" when they avoid stepping on the grass and stay on the walks, and when they put papers in the trash containers, and so forth. In this instance, their behavior is viewed as desirable, which is evaluative. The norms also make explicit the appropriate forms of behavior, such as putting papers in containers, not littering the building and grounds, and so forth.

Norms are a group product and may not be the same as the privately held values of some of the students or faculty. However, they are the standards of reference with which acceptable or unacceptable behavior is evaluated. The teacher who informs and reminds students, "In our school, we stay on the walks and protect the grass and plantings," is referring to a norm. When the students see a fellow-student taking a shortcut across the grass and they call, "Hey! Get off there!", they are using the norm as a criterion or standard for evaluating the behavior they have observed.

The norms, then, have the general function of tying the members—adults and children in the case of a school—into a system. They can carry out their purposes as teachers and as learners if they know their assignment in relation to the norms. A cognitive framework is established by providing the members with a known set of values and behaviors. Although the norms of his school may seem solid and unchangeable to a young pupil, they are, in fact, subject to constant change.

The work of the school and how the personnel—students, faculty, administration, and staff—relate to one another is structured by tacit understanding and norms as well as by rules and policies. The rules and policies may originate from and directly or indirectly implement the next higher level of the school system. The exact rules may vary because of the administrator's interpretation and because of the variety of means of putting them into effect.

The norms and values of the school serve as integrative principles because they are shared by many or all of the school's members. The norms for an organization such as a school make clear and explicit the forms of behavior appropriate for the personnel—that is, for students, teachers, administrators, and others regularly a part of the school.

Students take on the interpersonal manners or the ways of relating to others that are distinctive of their school. This process of learning the ways to treat other students, faculty, and administrators begins for some children before they enter the school when they hear their siblings and friends talk about the way things are in the school. Other children have relatively little preliminary information and learn through their own experiences. For all children, the continuous processes of interaction and of feedback modify how they perceive the interpersonal relationships which are part of the organization of their school.

Knowledge of these organizational norms and the related ability to behave in some accord with them is observable in the school setting. Until children learn correct manners and values, they may be at a disadvantage in pursuing the learning tasks of the school.

Ideas of what is popular in dress, grooming, language, and manners are constantly changed by the students. What is acceptable one year or season is *passee* another. These outward expressions are means that students use to gain acceptance, recognition, and status from their peers. The imitation and copying in these matters is usually on an informal basis, i.e., without classroom or instructional attention. However, by adopting these norms of their peers, individuals fit the outward organizational ways of their school.

Although the school faculty and administration may not actively organize some of the student-developed and student-disseminated ways, in some areas they find that the work of curricular learnings are facilitated by them. The accepted manner of treating and speaking of student-to-student and student-to-teacher, as well as teacher-to-student, is an example of such a pattern. The student may approach the teacher in a noninstructional setting, and smiling, say, "Mr. Jones," wait for the teacher's recognition, and then state his point. This procedure will gain a more positive response for the child who wishes to report an infraction of rules on the playground, than the child who dashes headlong to a teacher who is talking to another person and immediately launches into loud complaints, such as, "Teacher, those kids won't give me my turn!" A refusal of help, "Don't tattle to me," or "Straighten out your own problems," baffles the child because he had seen other children given assistance in similar situations. The *expectation of the manner of interaction* was not met by the child, who may be unaware that he failed to use the ways of his school.

Similar expectations exist in student-to-student relationships. It may be usual for pupils to help one another with work, or it may be discouraged or forbidden. The child transferring into a school may find acceptance and friendly help, indifference and non-acceptance, or some combination of these two. He may incorrectly perceive this as resulting from his own personality—either in a posi-

tive or negative sense—when it may be a usual way of treating the newcomer. The nature of the peer interaction—the values of the associated expectations for behavior—can be seen as part of the organization of the school and may serve to assist in achieving school goals.

The students, faculty, and administrators make and perpetuate, or change and modify, the norms for interaction. These norms are a less than obvious part of the school's organization, although they help to structure roles and positions, as well as to promote the chosen goals and the emphasis placed on the goals.

The policies and rules of the school have repercussions in the classroom—in attitudes and values, organization, goals, and behavior. From possible alternatives, the policies indicate a course and method of action which guides the choice of present and future decisions. The rules of the school are the applications of policies. A policy for developing responsibility on the part of the students to the full extent allowed by their maturity and capability may have associated rules and regulations that dictate conduct on the grounds, in the halls, in the auditorium, and in other shared facilities. The policies and rules that are rigid and prescriptive, at one end of a continuum, to permissive, at the other, tend to have related rules and practices in classrooms. School rules for lining up before entering, not talking, and requiring permission to move from place to place will be similar to rules at the classroom level.

The same generally verbalized policy may have quite different interpretations. Thus, it may appear that rules are quite different from school to school. The perceptions of the system or district policy by the administration and faculty are elements which make for diversity in the schools.

As important as the varied perceptions of policies and rules are the ways in which they are put into effect. The same policies and rules may be held and practiced by different principals with quite different effects.

In contrasting the administration of the same rules in two different schools, a teacher describes the feelings and behavior of teachers and children.

If these comments sound like a comparison between principals, I do not mean it as such. It describes two exactly opposite situations in regards to attitudes and reactions of two school groups.

In one school where I was teaching the fourth grade, the principal had hard and fast rules with regards to pupils and staff. These rules were not flexible in any way to suit individual children or adults. The playground was supervised to death so to speak—no freedom at all was felt by

pupils or staff. The accident rate was high because everyone felt a constant stress and strain. The school group as a whole was frustrated by this constant pressure and were openly hostile and careless.

A similar situation exists in another school where I still teach the fourth grade. The same rules prevail because it is the same district, but here the principal administers these rules in a certain flexible way which constitutes no strain or stress on any individual under his jurisdiction. No one's individuality—either children's or adults'—is overlooked. The playground is supervised with minimum effort, and the principal takes some of the playground duty to relieve the teachers. He is not weak in any way. Everyone carries out school policies because of the mutual liking.

In the last situation, accidents are at a minimum. A very happy relationship exists in the whole school. Things are accomplished because everyone wants them to be and pupils and staff cooperate on carrying out school policies.

When group problem behavior occurs as a result of school standards, rules or policies, a barrier is created between administrative personnel and teachers, and teachers, because they are aware of and often share the behavioral norms and expectancies of the school, are reluctant to communicate the problems to the administration. As a result, teachers rarely ask for help when behavioral problems arise that involve the whole group. In fact, teachers try to maintain a barrier of secrecy to prevent their difficulties from being discovered, thereby decreasing the possibility of receiving low ratings for their classroom-management procedures. Because classroom groups usually are on guard when administrative personnel are present, much of the difficulty that exists in classrooms and which affects learning adversely remains undiscovered.

The tendency is for administrators and educators alike to diagnose problem behavior in classrooms as being the fault of the teachers. If it becomes obvious that teachers are experiencing management difficulties, administrators may conclude that either stronger control practices are needed, or that teachers are weak in human relations. This situation places teachers under great pressure and tends to reinforce management problems, especially those caused by school organizational practices. Teachers tend to become stricter, thus increasing the difficulties as stricter control practices cause new problems to emerge.

In new schools with no preexisting organization or rules and with no norms or related system of norms, ways of behaving quickly emerge. The organization into instructional classes, the assignment of teachers and children, and matters of space and

schedules are preplanned by the school officials. Usually these are quickly adopted by the teachers and students because they are similar to other organizational patterns and because the necessity of an organization is understood. The effects may be similar to what occurred in the following incident.

Our school is only six months old and the children are still conscious of everything being new. One morning my fourth grade class came in quite disturbed and upset. When I asked them what was wrong, the boys reported that someone had made a mess of the boy's restroom. I asked the girls if they also had a messy restroom and they said, "No," yet they, too, were upset. As the class discussed this, they brought out the following points:

1. The primary boys had already established a reputation of messing up their restroom and the principal had set up a system by which no primary boys could go to the restroom without first obtaining a restroom stick from the duty teacher.<sup>1</sup>
2. Some upper grade girls had once deliberately messed up the upper grade restroom and the principal had initiated the stick system for all upper grade girls for before school and the noon hour, but not for recess.
3. The boys reported seeing primary boys in their restroom. However, they also admitted seeing some sixth grade boys playing around in the restroom.
4. The class was afraid the principal would find out about the restroom and would extend the stick system to include recesses.

The consensus of the class was that the stick system was for babies, and it resented having to get permission to use a restroom.

### Instructional Organization

When large numbers of students are gathered together as a school, some assignment to instructional groups or classes is required. The age-grade structure, with the youngest children in the lowest grade and progressing to the oldest in the highest grades, is the usual arrangement. In situations where overt schoolwide

---

<sup>1</sup> The stick system refers to the practice of hanging a wooden tag from a hook in the classroom. The wooden tag could be taken by a child without asking the teacher's permission. It served as a ticket or pass. The child upon returning to the classroom, returned it to the hook. Only one child at a time could leave the room by this system.

status is attached to the oldest groups, the younger children, unable to achieve such attention, may carry their feelings into the classroom with resultant aggression or apathy. One of the basic decisions about grouping is whether to use homogeneous or heterogeneous groups. (Combinations are also used.) An illustration is an elementary class in which the major part of the instructional time is used for classes grouped heterogeneously, but with one period for skill instruction in reading. For one period, children of similar achievement levels are regrouped into class-size groups and taught by the teacher assigned to that achievement level.

Homogeneous groupings by grade in the elementary school or by subject in secondary schools are decided by one or several factors (achievement is the common one) by the administration or faculty or by both in cooperation. Within either homogeneously or heterogeneously grouped classes further grouping is needed—it may be one in which a rather permanent placement in a subgroup is made for each student or it may, less often, be on a short-term, temporary basis. For students, and, perhaps less for teachers, the allocation to a low class or a low group within a class carries reflected evaluations that will affect the learning behavior of the class and of individual students.

Team-teaching, nongrading, and modular scheduling are current modifications. As variations from the usual organization, they change the use of teachers' time, the learner's opportunity to progress, and the subject or curricular emphasis by varying amounts and spacing of time. These organizations of the school do, of course, involve groupings, and the effects on teacher and student instructional behavior is comparable to those in more conventional arrangements. In these organizations, homogeneous groupings are frequent. The student's perception of himself, his worth, and his status as a learner are affected by his assignment in low, middle, or high groups.

The time schedule, as organized for the school as a whole, is an element which encourages or discourages classroom groups. If rigid times are required for certain subjects to be taught in the elementary school especially, the teachers and children feel as if they are on a treadmill trying to keep on time—and time becomes the important factor in their minds.

The time schedule is an organizational matter that is difficult to arrange to the best advantage of all classes. Undesirable scheduling is caused for some classes because of the need to give everyone a chance to use limited facilities such as play areas, auditoriums, music or art rooms, and libraries. Such exigencies require that classes be assigned times that are less than ideal for a balanced program and sequence of activities throughout the day. A class may have its physical education period the first hour of the day,

when it would preferably come as a change to physically quiet activities. Some inconvenient timing usually cannot be avoided in even the most carefully planned schedule. Undesirable feelings arise when a class feels that it is never given fair treatment, as when a slow class is consistently given poorer schedules than the more capable groups.

The divided day, which is used in primary grades for special instruction in reading or other basic skills, has a time schedule which may already have, or which may later develop connotations. In this increasingly common arrangement, half of the class attends school for one hour before the rest of the class arrives. The first half of the class is dismissed an hour earlier in the afternoon, and the second half of the class remains. This plan permits the teacher to work with smaller numbers of children for the first and last hour of the day and gives several hours for the development of whole-class activities in the middle of the day. The practice of having the slower half of the class attend the morning session and the faster half of the class attend the afternoon session may soon become so established as to label the students according to their assignment. It can, in fact, make it difficult to conduct the general activities in which all children are expected to participate. This is not an insurmountable defect of the divided-day plan, but it is one which, if unattended, can and does have deleterious effects.

### Curricular Organization

The curriculum and its related materials and equipment are organized at the school level to achieve the kind of individual learning that results when the student completes the years and experiences provided by the school. The determining of content to be taught and learned at each successive age and grade and by subjects is usual. The purposes of this organization are to avoid overlapping and repetition, to build upon previous learning, to assure a wide range of content and activities, and to have an ascending scale of difficulty. A linear plan is not necessarily implied, as there may be planned cycles in which content and skills are reintroduced at successively older ages to reinforce and to expand the previous learning.

With this curriculum, the materials are allotted to given grades and are sometimes held inviolate for their use. A bright student who has completed the books and materials assigned to his level may not advance to those of the next until he has been promoted, which will not be until he has attained the chronological age for that grade. Conversely, in such a rigid curricular organization, the teacher and the slower learning child may not use the books, materials, or content of a younger age group, although it might be

better suited to their requirements. A look at such an extreme or curricular organization highlights the probable resultants for teachers and classes. The frustration of the teacher might be resolved by his using extra effort to find new curricular content and materials better suited to the range of individual learners, or by increasing pressure on the students to continue with the grade-placed material.

The importance of the evaluation practices to the curriculum requires some attention. The evaluation and reporting policies of the school require the on-going and daily evaluation practices of the classroom to conform or be compatible. A viewpoint that the learner has a responsibility to participate in the evaluation process and in the reports sent to the home tends to produce similar actions on a smaller scale and a daily basis. An opposing position, that the teacher is the best qualified to make judgments and is, therefore, the source of authoritative evaluations, will produce quite consistent daily teacher behavior but quite different results from the first viewpoint.

The learner's response to the curriculum is complex. Although children have an urge to develop, create, and grow, these characteristics vary with the circumstances in which they find themselves. Children at the elementary school age want to know about many things, but it is naive to think that they are eager to learn all the subject areas that society believes they should learn, i.e., the curriculum. What they do appear to want is a chance to do things for themselves. They want to have the chance to be useful and creative, and a chance to develop to their full potential as individuals within the scope of the school environment and experience. Because of these desires most children will perform the tasks assigned and learn the skills they are expected to learn. The curriculum plan or organization and the teacher's management of the classroom should provide children with this opportunity.

The best organizational structure for a school is uniquely determined by many of the factors we have discussed, and would include its objectives and plans, the givens, or those materials and conditions which exist in the present situation, such as the present structure, the leadership style, and the human resources—adult and child.

## Summary

This chapter creates a framework for understanding and analyzing the individual and collective behavior of children in classrooms. The individual, the class, and the school are discussed as interrelated components.



Behavior resulting from unsatisfactory conditions in the classroom organization are sharply distinguished from the problem behavior of emotionally disturbed children. Cues for teachers to observe are explained. Some of the more important effects are described under the headings of submissive and dependent behavior; apathetic and fearful behavior; and aggressive and hostile behavior. Problem individuals who act as agents of the group are given attention.

The nature of a group is explored as an important aspect in the relationship of children and their groups. Properties of groups are seen as important for the observation and study of groups. The properties discussed here include cohesiveness, interaction, communication, structure, and goals. Variation in extent, degree, or quality is important, as is interrelatedness, in understanding the range of groups that occurs.

Forces operate in groups in such a way as to constitute resistance to change, after the group has established its standards of behavior. Teachers who wish to redirect the behavior must recognize such forces as the relevance of the change to the perceived needs of the group. Communication is a force here, and one which is given recurring emphasis in the development of management skills.

The organizational structure of the school has pervasive effects on individuals and on the classroom. The curricular organization, with its allocation of content and materials and the organization of the student body into instructional groupings, are important aspects of school organization. The place of norms, rules, and policies is explored.

### For Further Study

1. Prepare a report on the conceptions of school which children hold before they enter school. If possible, gather information by talking with one or more preschool children. To improve communication, encourage the child to act out or play what he expects school will be like.
2. Observe a child who is considered to be a problem child in order to determine if he is acting for the group or if he is, in fact, a disturbed child.
3. Why are some individuals unable to perceive the behavior, or the range of behavior, which his group will tolerate? Give as many reasons as possible.
4. What actions may a teacher take to help an unaccepted child become accepted by the class without alienating or upsetting the class?

5. How do you determine if individuals are not conforming because they do not perceive clearly what is expected?

6. Analyze the controls used by Miss Brown in "The Dependent Class."

7. *Conditions* in the class and school organization as causes of apathetic, indifferent, hostile, or aggressive behavior can be changed in order to gain improvement for individuals and groups. Why is this a new idea in educational practice?

8. Add to the list of five points which describes the behavior of an aggressive, hostile group.

9. How may a teacher recognize that he uses threat and force to control a class?

10. Explain the statement that group climate is the result of the interrelated aspects which are at work in a group.

11. Observe a teacher instructing a group in the classroom or in other teaching situations, such as the playground or library. Make a brief record in anecdotal form of the teacher's language and behavior, including nonverbal actions. Compare your record with Figure 3—Practices Used to Control Classroom Behavior Problems, and decide where the observed behavior belongs.

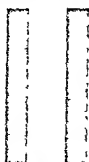
12. Describe an incident in which a well-liked member of a class influenced the decision and actions of the group.

13. Examine recent professional periodicals for innovations suggested or recommended for the school organization. Predict the effects on the dynamics of a classroom of the innovation that you select.

14. Inquire of teachers what aspects of their school's organization causes them the most difficulty in conducting their classroom. You might specifically ask about any of the following: curriculum, grouping, the school building, rules, and values.

15. The components used to explain classroom behavior are the individual, the group, and the school. Extended components are also influential. Give specific illustrations of effects from the school system or school district, from the state school system, and from the national level.

# **SECTION**



## **Skill Training for Facilitation**

**ACHIEVING  
UNITY AND  
COOPERATION**

**ESTABLISHING  
STANDARDS  
AND COORDINATING  
WORK  
PROCEDURES**

**USING PROBLEM  
SOLVING  
TO IMPROVE  
CONDITIONS**

**CHANGING  
ESTABLISHED  
PATTERNS OF  
GROUP  
BEHAVIOR**

characteristics and properties and their mutual interdependence. There is knowledge which makes it possible to provide teachers with the following:

1. A means for comprehending and describing in behavioral terms the types of classroom-management functions that must be performed if the instructional dimension of teaching is to be carried out effectively.
2. A means for understanding the causes of collective actions which disrupt the orderly instructional procedures, and ways of coping with these collective behaviors to everyone's satisfaction.
3. A means for predicting class reactions when certain conditions exist, and ways of setting conditions so that predictable behavior will occur that is acceptable and satisfactory to all concerned.
4. The means by which teachers can monitor their own behavior, detect the effects on the classroom system, and make appropriate changes when warranted.

In addition teachers must have guidelines for helping the group to meet changes in the environment, as well as practices and procedures for changing inappropriate behavior patterns which are already established. For example, in many school situations today pupils transfer in and out of classrooms. Although class groups may feel the loss of a pupil who transfers out of the group, the effect often is not as great as when a new pupil enters after school has been in session for a period of time. Sometimes acceptance of a new pupil is slow. Sometimes a new pupil affects relationships within the group. By viewing the management aspect of teaching behaviorally, teachers can take actions before the fact and avoid many problems which possibly might occur.

Another reason for proposing a more operational and explicit means of describing and training teachers in classroom-management practices is the diversity of classroom problems which teachers encounter. There are individuals in classroom groups today who are emotionally unstable. The behavior of these individuals can disrupt the work processes of the classroom organization hour after hour if the group itself is unstable and unable to tolerate and more or less ignore the actions of emotionally disturbed individuals. A unified, integrated group can tolerate and withstand disruptive influences. Although teachers usually are not trained or able to treat severely disturbed youngsters, they can establish a stable, accepting atmosphere which does not contribute further to the problems of these individuals.

Other situations that teachers face which require the application of systematic and appropriate knowledge may be the results of the rules, policies, or implicit norms of the school organization. Or, the class group may be perceived by members as having an imposed structural hierarchy that makes the group unattractive and the work situation dissatisfying.

Many times teachers inherit a class group which develops solidarity

almost immediately and resists all the efforts made to gain group cooperation. Teachers who lack the knowledge and training to overcome this resistance must resort to force. The energy required to employ force severely curtails the instructional efficiency of teachers.

Perhaps the most common management problems with which teachers must deal are nonadherence to acceptable behavioral standards, the behavior employed by groups to relieve frustration, and the disturbances caused by interpersonal conflict.

In addition to knowing how to organize subject matter and making it interesting to children, teachers also must know how to build the most satisfying and productive classroom organization that is possible. Although the best of classroom organizations will have problems requiring teacher-management competence (maintenance always is required), i.e., a unified integrated system will have fewer problems and many times the group members will be able to handle these problems themselves.

In addition to handling management problems, an objective of incident-simulation training is to broaden teachers' perspectives so that they see beyond the behavior of any one child to the forces in the classroom system that affect his behavior.

Teachers can begin to understand that an individual's attitudes and behavior are affected by the classroom group; in turn, this affects his conduct which may be regulated in large measure by group pressures to conform. If an individual child is attracted to the class group and desires to belong, and if the class group accepts school tasks and encourages individual learning, individuals are affected by this positive over-all group feeling toward school tasks and goals. If, on the other hand, the class group develops a norm relating to nonacceptance of school tasks, or a norm leading to disruptive behavior, individual attitudes and behavior also are affected in a negative way. These organizational forces which affect behavior and learning must be steered in a positive direction if educational goals are to be achieved.

Another objective of incident-simulation training is to enable teachers to develop conditions in the classroom system that create a feeling in the group which is shared by all members that acceptable, appropriate behavior is desirable. Through the use of intelligent action and by applying appropriate knowledge, teachers can create conditions which cause groups to change behavior that is disruptive, distracting, and that interferes with learning. In fact, conditions can be established in which the group forces affecting learning can be changed by the group so that they are highly supportive of instructional practices.

Teachers must be reminded again that effectiveness in classroom management is not a result of inborn traits, or of any particular arrangement of personality characteristics. Effective management can be learned and developed by practice. Teachers should not be discouraged by the strong tendency in elementary education to consider teachers who are fairly successful in managing their classes as possessing inborn traits, intuition,

and a feeling for children. Nor should they feel insecure because of the belief that in this performance area good teachers are born—not trained. Also, teachers should not feel a personal inadequacy because often the idea is implied that classes in which there is friction or disorder of any kind are the result of teachers who lack certain personal skills or that good teachers do not have to deal with many behavior problems. The assumption, often unwarranted, is that if they motivate, create high interest, organize and plan lessons well, then management problems seldom arise.

Incident-simulation training presents participants with situations that they may possibly encounter in their classrooms. (Each incident presented in Sections II and III actually did happen.) Although incident simulation does not place participants in an environment similar to that in which they will carry on their teaching, the use of incidents does permit teachers to develop and sharpen their skills before they enter the real world of the classroom or, in the case of the experienced teacher, before he adds it to his teaching repertoire. Incident simulation provides a way of obtaining experience without creating additional and even more serious problems resulting from mistakes made during the teacher's learning process.

Supposedly, teachers with experience are more successful in their jobs. It is generally accepted that experience itself is the most effective way of learning. It is true that in many kinds of jobs the most important lessons people gain are from experience rather than from books or lectures. Because the lesson is learned in a concrete situation, it is much easier to see how a similar happening might apply in another situation. Also, lessons from experience are undeniable: the occurrence actually took place, a certain response actually occurred, and particular events actually transpired as a result.

In teaching, however, experience is the best teacher only if the particular experience makes a point. Many experiences teachers have do not produce any outstanding effects. If they did, the period of practice teaching would produce a master teacher and, of course, it does not. Because of the nature of practice teaching, i.e., preservice teaching, much of the experience relating to classroom management is unprofitable.

It is true, also, that one or two years of teaching experience is often not effective. What accounts for this? If experience is to be effective to a teacher, its elements must be isolated, defined, and utilized as fully as possible. Teaching has some unique characteristics not found commonly in other types of jobs. In many types of leadership positions, it is possible for individuals to take action, to find out the results of the actions, and to analyze and evaluate what went right and what went wrong. When this is possible, individuals can then modify their approach to the problem and improve upon it. There is evidence upon which to make an assessment of the degree of success achieved.

In the management aspect of teaching, experience does not often pro-

vide new insights into actions teachers should take. One reason is due to the way classroom behavior is perceived and to the way classroom management is viewed. Another trouble may be that teachers are not ready for a particular class reaction and they are caught by surprise. They react and cause additional problems. The original event is lost in the string of actions and reactions that follow. Usually, it seems, teachers are unprepared to handle the situation so they deal with it as they have seen similar situations dealt with when they were pupils in classrooms themselves. There are times when the situation seems so confused that teachers are unable to take any constructive action so they employ power techniques instead of using skill practices.

Most important, however, the reason that experience in teaching is often unprofitable is because regardless of the action taken, the feedback received is so frequently not understandable. As a result, there is no way for teachers to know the effects of their performance.

Feedback from inappropriate control practices may be slow in coming or hard to recognize. Moreover, if it appears to teachers that their methods are inadequate, it is often next to impossible for them to determine the nature of the errors and the weaknesses in the practices that were responsible for their lack of success.

Incident-simulation training provides a situation in which experience may be obtained far removed from the locus of specific classroom-management problems. Participants can gain new understandings and develop new skills in isolation from the pressures of the total teaching transaction and the classroom group. Incident-simulation training provides certain essentials that are necessary in any learning situation in addition to enabling teachers to gain off-the-job experience. The training procedures make it possible for teachers to

1. Gain new understandings as to the source of many management problems, new skills in handling these problems, and new ways of approaching classroom-management problems.
2. Have an opportunity to put innovative practices into practical action.
3. Learn the effects of certain communicative behaviors and gain the opportunity to improve interaction processes.
4. Receive feedback as to the results of actions taken and the relationship between what was done and the end result.

When new ideas are presented, there can be no consequential learning unless opportunity is provided to put this learning into practice. Reality practice is a practical method to help people to actually perform and use new learning intended for their special environment, the classroom, in a protected and supportive situation. The special application that it has in the skill training is helping teachers adjust to the school and classroom environment. The reality is contained in the incidents which are drawn from the experiences of many teachers in widely different school situations. Their perceptions are projected by the incidents they choose and

the surrounding data or descriptions. The use of language with individual, stylistic reporting adds to the reality of the incidents. The incidents represent a great variety of group behavior that teachers considered significant and interesting. Perhaps because the behavior seemed unusual, or difficult, unexpected, puzzling, or challenging in a number of ways. By reading and re-reading and studying the incident as a teacher reports it, the reader will relate his own background to further complete the experience. In so doing, its reality enlarges and takes on the proportions that move to the practice or skill training for each incident. The educational objective for the use of the method, as of other methods employed, lends to the sense of reality and avoids shallow play acting.

Reality practice, as it is used here, is characterized by spontaneity of action and speech. It is either completely unrehearsed, or a few group members prepare a special version for others to observe. Even prepared incidents are not rehearsed in the traditional sense of being mesmerized, nor are positions predetermined as for a dramatic production. The practice or playing-out should be spontaneous rather than planned in detail.

There are several values to reality practice. One or more will take on greater prominence as compared with other values according to the incident, the procedures used, and the progress and insights that are developed as the individual teacher and the training group continue to study. The values include the following.

1. They provide a pretest of ideas that may be significant at present and in the future.
2. They help to learn the skills necessary for effective participation and leadership of classroom groups.
3. They help to examine more objectively the teaching performance.
4. They permit experimentation and innovations in teaching behavior in a seemingly real situation, but preliminary to the teaching act in the classroom.
5. They provide vivid examples of behavior that communicate more effectively than discussion or conversation.
6. They open up other people's perceptions and assist in understanding other points of view.
7. They actively involve the participant in the problem, its analysis, and the decision making or solutions.

The general procedures to be used in reality practice are augmented by suggestions for the simulation of specific incidents. The steps in broad outline are as follows.

1. Analyze the incident for the problem or problems. Understand the setting or conditions in which it occurred. Do not hurry this step, as quick or obvious points may be superficial and misleading.
2. Propose one or more solutions. With each proposed solution the teacher action and the manner of the action must be considered and planned.



3. Select the proposed solution and the people to play the parts. The total group or small groups may participate. Nonplayers have responsibilities to observe the procedures and their effects.
4. The incident may be played either to establish the problem or to develop a solution or both. A relaxed atmosphere will encourage thinking responses by the participants and the nonplayers. The effect should be one of naturalness with spontaneous building of ideas through interaction.
5. The practice session is discussed for the handling of the problem, the effects of the teacher behavior on the class, and other relevant points.
6. More than one approach to the problem may be played. This may be done by the same group replaying, incorporating the changes that were discussed, or another cast—in whole or part—may play another approach to the problem.
7. A summary should recapitulate the major points of analysis and teacher behavior, restate special questions or suggestions that were given, and clarify the principles that were learned.

The simulation materials in Sections II and III present a great many different situations and problems that occur in teaching.<sup>1</sup> The methods that are employed in the training are those of reality practice (an enactment of the problem), group discussion and analysis, and the use of small groups. A number of adaptations of the major methods are made to fit the problems and to show the variety that is possible. The use of a peer group in the skill training of the teacher-as-participant in the simulation is devised to expedite and increase learning. It is, of course, consistent with the nature of the content and skills to be learned.

Reality practice is one training method for exploring problems that require action. It is not a panacea and does not take the place of discussion, but it uses discussion as a part of the process. It can be stimulating and improve the discussion in a group, it can help clarify problems, improve analysis, widen the range of relevant behavior, and permit the teacher to gain familiarity with a new way of behaving.

Discussion as a method of skill training deserves attention for its own merit and because it is incorporated into other methods such as reality practice. When it is used well it enhances these other methods or, if used ineffectively, may vitiate or cancel their value.

Discussion may take many forms and no predetermined pattern is superior to others or advocated here. The simulation incident provides the impetus, and the details of the discussion will come from the group that discusses it. At the beginning stage the group or class should frame their

---

<sup>1</sup> All forms of simulation have the characteristic of placing the participant in an environment similar to that in which he will work. It enables him to try his knowledge and skills in a laboratory-type situation before using them in the environment for which they are intended.

objectives and clarify their terms and definitions. The use of the same words or terms by different people is not to be assumed to indicate a common understanding or interpretation. The time that is needed to arrive at an understanding of other people's perceptions is time well spent and a bulwark against semantic difficulties at later stages of the discussion. Certain terms have such a common ground of understanding by some groups that a minimum of time and attention are needed to clarify them. The group may move quickly to assure that the purposes of the session or meeting—and the purposes of the incident—are understood. Members of the group may show individuality here, also, and the synthesizing of their personal concepts of the goal may be made into the larger goal.

At the beginning stage of discussion the procedures to be followed should be formulated. What and how the problem is to be studied and analyzed, the time and space allowed or other limitations, how much is to be accomplished, and the manner of presenting the conclusions or recommendations must be clarified.

The incident will serve to orient the members of the group to the problem at the beginning of a discussion. Also, the incident dramatizes the problem and gives it an impact that a generalized statement of a problem lacks. The case is presented to the group in oral form or in some combination of oral and silent reading of the written incident. This is the discussion starter. In attempting to resolve the problem of the incident, the group uses flexibility and inventiveness combined with the new knowledge. In this process the basic problem is worked out and the solutions are tested.

Among the difficulties to be avoided in the discussions is the tendency to see too narrowly or too personally. Another tendency that plagues discussion groups is that of members who focus on the less important parts of the situation or problem in the incident. The members who bring in irrelevant materials or opinions also hinder progress. The ability to concentrate on the problem grows with the experience of groups in analyzing and in practicing the related communication and action skills that are stimulated by the incident.

# 4

## ACHIEVING UNITY AND COOPERATION

### INTRODUCTION

The importance of developing good interpersonal relations and a good atmosphere in the classroom has been stressed frequently by elementary educators. Frequent reference is made to the values to be gained by promoting group acceptance of individuals who might be different, and of establishing a feeling of belonging in the instructional group. Great stress is placed upon group acceptance of members, mutual liking of members for one another, and improving the sociometric status of individual pupils who may lack social acceptance.

Although the importance of developing united, cooperative class groups is frequently stressed in education, very little information is provided to teachers regarding the meanings of abstract terms and the determinants of this condition. Knowing the values to be gained from developing a cohesive, cooperative group does not provide the teacher with the knowledge necessary to make the class organization attractive or its members friendly and cooperative. Descriptions of good classroom climates in the literature do not help teachers understand why a class of children sometimes works well together or why at other times the group members may suddenly become quarrelsome and uncooperative. Value statements do not account for fluctuations in group unity, or explain why some class groups are attractive to members while others are not. Teachers need to understand why it is that a class of children may, at times, suddenly show great solidarity when previously there was a noticeable lack of unity, or a lack of unity when previously the group showed solidarity. Stressing the value of developing unified cooperative classroom groups does not provide an adequate foundation for understanding the psychology of the classroom organization or the behavior of individuals in them.

## CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

Theory and research relating to small, organized, face-to-face groups show that groups attempt to attain and maintain adequate degrees of unity and integration. Some degree of cohesiveness must develop in order for group organizations to function efficiently and thus to provide satisfactory conditions for members. This means that it is characteristic of groups to seek to develop and maintain structural stability, cooperativeness, and functional operativeness. It might be said that groups are concerned with unity and loyalty, and with achieving some common values. Although a class group is fairly large, and many of its operations are routine, it appears that many behavior patterns exhibited by members of classroom groups indicate that unity and integration are valued, and classroom work is set aside when the group must devote its efforts to developing a stable system of relationships.

That group cohesiveness or unity is a complex matter is suggested by the variety of definitions used in the literature to describe this phenomenon or some aspect of it.

### Descriptive Terms

Terms such as solidarity, loyalty, morale, attractiveness, and atmosphere have been used to describe the group property of cohesiveness. Cohesiveness has also been called mutual attraction or group attractiveness. This condition, which usually exists to some degree in most groups at some time, has been likened to glue, and has been called the quality, substance, or force which binds the group members together, for members of cohesive groups do stick together. They think of themselves as being bound together in some way.

*Solidarity.* While cohesiveness is defined as a tendency to stick together, solidarity means complete unity and agreement as to purpose, opinion, interest, and feeling. At times situations arise which cause class groups to show evidences of extreme solidarity. For example, because of threat from an outside force, a group, which may or may not have seemed strongly cohesive previously, may become so when a threatening situation becomes a reality. Group solidarity is observable when the group is threatened, or when it becomes resistant to forces which prevent interaction and communication, or when some action by teachers or others seems to be divisive and threatens group integration.

*Loyalty.* Loyalty may be defined as the liking of members for the group itself. It is shown by the group member's adherence to a par-

ticular set of norms or social values which have become identified with the group. It may be manifested when a member is in trouble, and the group rushes to his defense, or it may be evidenced when the group unites and defends itself against attack, or when it pursues a difficult goal and faces opposition in attaining the goal.

In children's groups loyalty is often expressed dramatically and vigorously. For example, a number of third grade girls were playing with a large rubber ball during the noon hour. They were in their assigned play space and were completely absorbed in their activity. Some fourth grade boys suddenly appeared on the scene. They raced through the circle, grabbed the ball, tossed it back and forth a few times, and then took it and dribbled it across the play yard. This state of affairs, with the girls following in pursuit, was observed by some of the third grade boys who were playing nearby. They stopped their game and raced after the invaders. Yelling, punching, and a general rough-and-tumble resulted. Although the third grade boys had, on occasion, tormented the girls themselves, they would not allow outsiders to attack members of their group. It appears that group loyalty, in part at least, caused the boys to rush to the defense of members of their class group. Members of children's groups, particularly, often unite to defend group members, or they protect members by refusing to testify or squeal on them even when silence results in punishment for them. However, such behavior cannot be explained by group loyalty alone. This kind of behavior relates to the controlling force of shared norms. *Thou shalt not squeal* is the first commandment of most children's groups. If members do not conform to the shared norms of the group, they are not truly accepted as members of the group. Loyalty, then, is related to the shared values of the group, its norms for behavior, and to group attractiveness.

**Morale.** The term morale, used also describe cohesiveness, is a concept that cannot be developed by a simple definition. The task of trying to make clear or to disclose the elements comprising the nature of morale is elusive, for morale is something which is exceedingly abstract. It is not merely a feeling of belonging, but it is some intangible quality that makes for persistence and group self-maintenance in the face of trouble or difficulties.

**Satisfaction.** An intangible quality sometimes felt in strongly cohesive groups is sometimes called satisfaction. It is defined as a group condition which affects group members and causes them to work harmoniously together and cooperate with one another. Satisfaction with the group enables members to endure disappointments or to work together to overcome difficulties. If the situation is generally satisfactory, group members do not blame one another for the occasional set-backs that they collectively suffer. Members are loyal

to the group, and at times gladly make sacrifices for it. However, member satisfaction with the group is not the same as unity. It contributes toward cohesiveness because it leads members to support group operations and goals.

*Atmosphere.* The expression *good group atmosphere* is often used in educational literature to describe conditions when the group gives evidence of *esprit de corp*, morale, solidarity, and the like. The atmosphere of a group is a condition which can be felt, but is difficult for an observer to describe in objective terms. An atmosphere of tension, for example, may be noted by a teacher, but she may be unable to tell how she knows about it. It may be that the room is too quiet or that there is some undercurrent which may be detected from faint movements on the part of the group members. Certain facial expressions may give indications that all is not calm and peaceful. A good group atmosphere can be detected, but the clues are varied and because it is an over-all condition rather than some specific observable behavior, the factors which contribute to a good group atmosphere are difficult to pin down, for they may relate to nothing which is immediately or directly observable. Generally speaking, a class group which maintains a peaceful environment and whose members give evidence of being cooperative, happy, friendly, and contented can be considered to have a good atmosphere.

The incident which follows describes the reactions of a group of children to one individual class member. The behavior of the children indicated that the atmosphere was warm and friendly, and that the children liked one another. Since the individuals in the class group as a whole were considerate and concerned over one of their members, it can be inferred that the atmosphere was one of mutual trust and understanding. It seems certain that a child not as well endowed as the average for learning in the classroom would be encouraged and inspired to do his best in such surroundings.

I teach a group of seven-year-olds. In this group I have several children who are rather low in ability, and who do not respond in the same way as the more alert ones do. The children soon recognize this and know the ones who have difficulties.

The incident I am referring to happened one morning in my classroom. I had put up a chart with a poem which we had decided to memorize. The poem had been up several days. Each morning several children recited the poem from memory. All of the children had recited except for about four of the slower ones who had not asked for a turn. In this group is a little boy, Roger, who is not only slow, but who also has diffi-

room organization finds the work situation unsatisfactory, but through cooperative actions gain satisfaction by successfully resisting teachers' control efforts. The distinguishing characteristics of such groups may be approving and applauding misbehavior or openly resisting and taking aggressive steps to change classroom or school conditions. The effects of group properties upon the development of unity and cooperation may be substantial. It was shown in a previous chapter that groups may be described in terms of the following properties.

1. A multiple personnel with some feeling of identification or degree of cohesiveness.
2. A system of interaction.
3. An organization or structure.
4. Some common motives or shared goals.
5. Some power to standardize behavior.
6. Observable patterns of behavior resembling that called personality.

These interrelated properties are present in all small groups to some extent. In other words, each property and the degree to which it exists in the group effects all the other properties and the degree to which they exist. The extent to which a group is cohesive, then, is affected by the other group properties, and conversely, the nature and degree of the other properties are often dependent upon the degree to which the group is cohesive.

## Communication

When techniques are used which limit or curtail communication in the group, or if verbal interaction in the classroom is channeled between the teacher and individual students, groups have trouble in developing a desired degree of cohesiveness. However, when communication and interaction are fostered and encouraged, cohesiveness increases. The amount of verbal interaction which takes place among class group members affects members' liking for one another. If communication about problems affecting the group is encouraged, the interaction induces a positive feeling on the part of members toward the group. This positive feeling pertains to individuals in the group and to the group as a whole.

A number of studies reveal that the amount of interaction and the frequency of verbal communication have a direct relationship on the degree to which a group is cohesive. The implications for elementary classroom teachers are clearly evident. When children are given opportunities to plan together, when they are encouraged to discuss their problems, and when techniques are used to foster oral communication, unity in the class group will be heightened.

Also, if communication between children is restricted, the amount of unity decreases.

## Structure

Unity and cooperation are affected by the structure of the group. Clique formation, or the presence of subgroup rivalry, will decrease the unity in the total group although cohesiveness may be high in each subgroup or clique. If the structure involves rivalry for power and prestige, and if rival leaders develop feuds which involve members of the class, group unity suffers. If group members are struggling for status, and do so at the expense of other group members, resentment which affects group unity and solidarity is generated.

Because of the size of classroom groups there are always a number of friendship clusters. Sociograms reveal these groupings, but the same figures which show each child's preference for work and play companions do not provide evidence of cleavage in the total group. They reveal, in most cases, the individuals who make up the small subgroups. They show which children like each other somewhat more than others in the class group and who may have more opportunity to interact inside and outside class. However, if these friendship groupings are mutually exclusive, there is cleavage in the total group and the degree of cohesiveness is low.

Kelley<sup>5</sup> showed that cohesiveness or group attraction was significantly affected by the kind of structure assigned or imposed upon the group. If the group is organized as a low status structure, or if the internal structure of the classroom group is organized by the teacher into high and low groups according to ability, class members will probably find the class group unattractive—particularly those in the low and middle groups. Other studies involving status hierarchies provide additional evidence to support the hypothesis that the practice of separating children into more or less permanent ability groupings may substantially affect the extent of total class cohesiveness and the degree of liking children have for the class group. A pleasant, friendly class atmosphere cannot be developed or maintained if a formal differentiation is made between subgroups which brings them into unfavorable comparison with each other. Cohesiveness depends to a great extent on members liking the group and finding it attractive; therefore the structure must be such that members feel comfortable, and it must contribute to unity and cooperative relations.

---

<sup>5</sup> Harold H. Kelley, "Communication in Experimentally Created Hierarchies," *Human Relations*, 4:39-56, 1951.



## Shared Motives

When members work together for goals which are shared, unity is heightened. All children usually desire to identify with others of their age group. In this respect they are much alike. They share the same desire to belong to a group. Thus it seems that children in elementary classroom groups have a motive in common. They desire to be a group. Most children value group affiliation highly; often they value it more than they do achievement.

## Norms

Research suggests that when cohesiveness is highly valued by the group, the members tend to exert pressures upon some individuals in an effort to integrate them into the group. In classroom groups which are highly cohesive, the children make more effort to agree and exert more effort to make changes toward agreement than do groups low in cohesiveness. The intensity and vigor children exhibit when discussing what is "fair" and "not fair" in their play situations is an example. Noncohesive groups develop few behavioral standards and have little power to induce members to agree to certain standards.

## DEVELOPING UNITY AND COOPERATION

Knowledge gained from group research provides valuable clues into ways to develop and maintain cohesive class groups. Although few studies have been conducted solely for the purpose of examining ways cohesiveness may be developed or heightened, the investigations which include cohesiveness as a part of the research problem have significance for teaching practice at all levels.

When cohesiveness is considered for the purpose of determining the specific ways it may be achieved, an analysis reveals that cohesiveness in classroom groups involves three different areas of operation. They are

1. The development of unity when the class first assembles at the beginning of the year.
2. The maintenance of unity throughout the year.
3. The restoring of unity when group unity is disrupted.

Each of these three areas requires that somewhat different practices be employed. Each area is considered separately in the sections which follow. Conflict, however, which can seriously disrupt group unity is discussed in detail in Chapter 8.

A number of experiments have, as one aspect of their problem, the development of cohesive or noncohesive groups. The basic method used to produce differences in cohesiveness is to create certain perceptions and expectations about the group to which individuals are assigned. Three general approaches are used. Instructions or suggestions are given to group members. The members are assigned to activities or tasks which vary in attractiveness, or the group structure or group processes are manipulated in favorable and unfavorable ways.

To create high and low degrees of group cohesiveness, Back<sup>6</sup> gave instructions which were designed to manipulate group attractiveness. One set of instructions stressed that the members were well matched. A second set of instructions stressed the importance of the task as a measure of imaginative capacity. Group prestige was emphasized with the third group. The members were told they had high qualifications for working on the task. Negative cohesive groups were formed by means of unfavorable evaluations; members were told it was doubtful they could work well together, or their abilities or qualifications for working on the task were low. These practices appeared to create cohesive groups in all instances as did the attempts to create negative cohesive groups.

In other investigations high cohesiveness was created by telling individual group members how well they were matched in terms of traits they possessed, and by telling them they would make an exceptionally fine team. In some cases, in order to create cohesiveness it was impressed upon the members as a whole that they were all very congenial, attractive, intelligent people. It was then impressed upon each member that all the other members were attractive. Cohesiveness was heightened in some cases by stressing the importance of the task, or by pointing out the satisfactions that were to be derived from working with other group members upon the task. In some cases prestige persons were employed to make favorable evaluations of the group and its members. This method produced high cohesiveness.

Another way of developing cohesiveness in newly formed groups was found to be the attractiveness of the activities. To create highly cohesive groups, members were assigned to activities when they indicated high interest in that direction. Still another procedure engaged the members in a discussion, and the the group participation was given positive evaluations.

In a study involving some groups of elementary school children, cohesiveness was developed by

---

<sup>6</sup> Kurt W. Back, "Influence through Social Communication," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 46:9-23, July 1951.

1. Creating an awareness in children that a personal need could be fulfilled by functioning with the group.
2. Emphasizing the personal gains that could be attained through belonging to the group.
3. Stressing the group's potential for acquiring personal prestige.
4. Using cooperative techniques.<sup>7</sup>

The experiments tended to suggest that the procedures did create highly cohesive groups. The ways in which cohesiveness was heightened appear to have implications for teachers who wish to develop unified groups in elementary classrooms. They indicate that cohesiveness can be developed by use of the following external means.

1. By making favorable appraisals of the group when this is warranted, and by avoiding unfavorable appraisals.
2. By heightening the children's awareness of the various attractions the class group offers.
3. By stressing satisfactions that are to be derived from working with the other children in the class.
4. By telling the group as a whole that together they are a good group in certain specific ways.
5. By emphasizing their prestige (they are now *first* graders, *second*, and so forth, or that they do certain specific things very well).
6. By dramatizing the many new and interesting things they will learn, and by beginning with an attractive activity which the children can work on together.
7. By having the group plan together for some phases of their daily activities.
8. By obtaining favorable evaluations of the classroom group from an outsider (administrator, supervisor, teacher).

## Making Favorable Appraisals

Teachers can develop unity, create good feelings, and establish a sense of cooperation by making honest, favorable appraisals of group behavior. The group as a whole can be examined for its good points, and the favorable assessments should be communicated to the class. This requires that teachers look at the group as a whole and not at individuals singly. They should praise total behavior, not the behavior of a few or of one section of the class. Teachers have been taught to use praise as a control method. This practice tends to decrease total unity and group cooperation. For example,

---

<sup>7</sup> Charles E. King, "The Applicability of Small Group Knowledge to the Classroom Situation," *Sociology and Social Research*, 45:18-23, October 1960.

if a primary teacher says, "I like the way Marcia put away her supplies," the thought implied is that the teacher does not like the way that others in the class performed in this instance. If teachers say, "Row one is ready and waiting," the statement implies an unfavorable evaluation of others in the class, besides setting the people in row one apart from others in the group. Teachers should avoid expressions of like and dislike when speaking to individuals, to small groups, or even to the group as a whole. Instead, statements of facts regarding the behavior of the whole group should be made, and not expressions of teacher feelings.

The group as a whole must be observed, its favorable assets noticed and remarked upon favorably. Favorable evaluations should relate to behavioral characteristics and not personal attributes or attainments. Comments such as "Everyone looks so clean and neat," can leave an uncomfortable impression that at another time they did not look clean and neat. Qualifying statements such as "You did this well today," also may make a very unfavorable impression by implying that the class did not do well on other occasions.

A beginning teacher who was having difficulty with a class that talked all the time and that paid little attention to following directions and to maintaining orderly procedures commented that she did not know if she could find anything to remark favorably about concerning her whole class group. The class was an exceedingly happy and friendly group even though it did ignore the teacher's control efforts. When the teacher capitalized on the group's favorable assets and involved members in plans for improving its own procedures, the behavior changed in a few days time.

"Establish strict controls on the first day!" is advice which is given to beginning teachers—frequently by other beginning teachers. This is poor advice. The evidence indicates that teachers should begin the development of cohesiveness on the first day. Perkins,<sup>8</sup> in an experiment involving teacher-pupil relations, concluded that the initial set of feelings and relations which were established in the classroom determined to a great extent the kind and amount of learning that followed.

The children coming to a new class on the first day have vague and varied expectations regarding the teacher, the class group, and the school tasks. These vague expectancies create some feelings of uncertainty in the children. Security and confidence can be established to a degree if teachers recognize the factors which contribute to the feelings of uncertainty. Children, as well as adults, are often somewhat anxious upon their first encounter with a new work situ-

---

<sup>8</sup> Hugh V. Perkins, "Climate Influences Group Learning," *Journal of Educational Research*, 45:115-119, October 1951.

ation. The apprehension is evoked by the fact that they are unsure of what is expected of them. They do not know the teacher, or the work schedule, or precisely what is going to be required of them. They cannot anticipate with certainty. The uneasiness springs from a desire to be adequate, but since they are not sure of what to expect, they are also unsure of whether they will be able to meet the situation. Children new to the school are particularly affected.

## Heightening Group Attraction

A number of means for alleviating the uncertainty which exists on the first day of school are available to teachers, but they must be free from responsibilities which distract their attention from the class group. If teachers have to check enrollment sheets, count the children who will eat lunch at school, or give their attention to parents who have questions, the important task of developing a good working atmosphere is delayed. Teachers need to be free to greet the children and observe their reactions as they enter the classroom for the first time. Teachers may begin the first day by reviewing the different activities the children will engage in and the new and important things they will learn. The daily program can be outlined for the children, as can the general organization of the school day. Explanations may be given of the weekly schedules and changes which pertain to assembly programs, audio-visual schedules, music or art classes, and the like. Children may be led to a pleasant anticipation of things to come.

Since an important goal is to establish cooperative relationships, certain practices may be employed to accomplish this objective. Children can be presented with some choices regarding working procedures in some areas of their work. These choices can be explored by the group, and a plan agreed upon which includes the understanding that the group can later make any revisions it deems necessary. Group planning in some area provides the teacher with an opportunity to make favorable evaluations of the group. (The discussion indicates that they will work well together, and so forth.) Some time during the day the children can discuss ways to make their room attractive and interesting, or some other means can be used to indicate to the children that this is *their* room, and for some time they will live and work in it together. Such discussions help to develop unity and cooperation and to provide opportunities for children to react to others in the class in a situation guided by the teacher to present individuals in a favorable way. The group can be helped to perceive class members favorably when they observe that their contributions are worthy of group consideration.

There is some research to indicate that positive attitudes may be formed toward new group members if these individuals are posi-

tively rewarded in some manner.<sup>9</sup> (Positive evaluations could be interpreted as positive rewards.)

The school generally has some fixed standards which define and set limits of expected behavior. These standards may be reviewed in terms of expectancies. For example, teachers can say, "In Lincoln school we remain on the playground until the bell rings," instead of, "We do not come in until after the bell rings," or "The rule is that all children stay on the grounds until the bell rings."

Unity and cooperation will not be developed in a day. Uncertainty can be dispelled by describing what is to come and by defining what is expected. The process of uniting the group can be started by helping the children perceive their class group, their room, and their learning tasks as attractive and pleasant.

*Maintaining Member Satisfaction.* Developing unity is not the whole problem—it must be maintained. In some ways this requires more knowledge and skill than developing it in the first place. This is because so many factors can operate to decrease group unity.

Research referred to previously indicates a number of factors or conditions which decrease group cohesiveness. For example, research shows that a decrease in group unity will occur if a prestige hierarchy is established, if competitive practices are employed, or if the group has too little opportunity to interact and to communicate.

A group may become less attractive to members when individuals disagree over ways to solve a problem. This conclusion can be derived from a study by French<sup>10</sup> who investigated in part the behavior of organized and unorganized groups in situations of frustration. The study has some implications for classroom teaching and indicates practices to avoid if cohesiveness is to be maintained. One can conclude from the study that classroom groups need leadership in problem-solving situations which have a number of aspects and which require group cooperation to solve. Without skilled leadership the class members may become entangled in processes and become frustrated. The group may become disorganized and some members may become aggressive and abusive in their responses.

There are classes of children which are not as cohesive as they

---

<sup>9</sup> Bernice Lott and Albert J. Lott, "The Formation of Positive Attitudes Toward Group Members," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 61:297-300, September 1960.

<sup>10</sup> John R. P. French Jr., "Organized and Unorganized Groups Under Fear and Frustration," *University of Iowa, Studies in Child Welfare*, 20:231-309, 1941.

might be because they are influenced by events outside the school. For example, certain neighborhood groups of children may have parties which do not include all the class members. This in itself will not create a lack of unity. It does, however, when privileged children taunt others because they were not invited, or when the out-of-school social activities act to create cliques and exclusive subgroups. Sometimes community prejudices are carried over into the school, causing some children to be viewed by others as being less socially acceptable. There are some research studies which suggest practices for building better relationships in the classroom.

A study of peer group relations found that the creation of small flexible groupings raised the social acceptability of scores of children who, at the beginning were not a social integral part of the group. Another study concerned with children's social status came to a similar conclusion. The experiment involved two classes, a second grade and a fourth grade, from a public school in a small town. Members of the classes were placed in small subgroups to work on an arithmetic test. It was found that the members' social status was affected by whether the group experienced success or failure. The conclusions were that in general the social status of children tend to rise following common group experiences, but the social status of members tends to decrease if the group experiences failure.

It has been observed that the attractiveness of the class group is lowered when some of the members of the group are viewed as having unpleasant characteristics or when the class is continually frustrated because of the behavior of some of the children. For example, a teacher reported that her third grade was constantly upset because of the behavior of one child. A committee came to her and asked if they could discuss this problem in class. Certain events interfered and the discussion was postponed. The following day she found a note which was smudged and worn because it had passed through many hands before it had reached her desk. It reads:

Dear Mrs. J.,

We want to complain about Roger because he is always spoiling our games and recking our privileges. Please do something about it.

Signed by,  
Jack  
Mary, etc.

There may be times when teachers are not completely aware of how various individuals are viewed by others in the class. The use of reaction stories or similar techniques may then be employed to find out why the individuals are held in such low regard by the majority of the children.

As stated earlier, cohesiveness must not only be developed, but it must be maintained. To maintain cohesiveness requires a knowledge of all the properties of groups and their relationship to cohesiveness, as well as an understanding of conditions and factors which influence group unity.

## Restoring Unity

Although group unity may be developed and maintained, there are many times when it must be restored. Cohesiveness is not a fixed, stable property. It can dissolve quickly.

When the children in a class show evidence of poor personal relations, or if the group, or parts of the group, exhibit aggressive or hostile characteristics, what should a teacher do? The first step is to analyze the situation. Has there been a change in a group property? Observe the group structure, for the dissatisfaction may be caused by some change such as the formation of a prestige hierarchy or the development of clique relations. Are the communication patterns too restricted? Has the class been given too little opportunity to establish common motives and goals? Has competition developed between subgroups? Could it be that the group is less attractive because of some condition which has arisen outside the classroom?

If the cause of the decrease in cohesiveness is obscure, the source of the difficulty can be uncovered by the use of reaction stories. This technique involves the use of an unfinished story which stimulates the expression of emotions and attitudes. The teacher prepares the story which presents a problem somewhat similar to the situation existing in the class. It is prepared according to the following criteria.

1. It should lend itself to good oral reading.
2. It should be dramatic enough to hold the interest of the children.
3. It should be realistic enough to be plausible.
4. It should present the problem or issue in such a way that the children will react and present causes.
5. It should involve situations or characters with which children will feel identity.
6. It should be prepared according to the age level of the group being studied.

The story is read to the children and they write or discuss the ending. Since a group reaction is desired, the most effective technique may be guided oral discussion. However, if there is much hostility in the group, this might not be effective, and individual reactions might be more revealing.

A short cut to eliciting reactions is the use of incomplete sen-



tences to which brief responses are stated or written by the children. Examples of such sentences might be: "The reason for children acting in this way is . . .," or "John became angry because. . . ." Children are urged to complete the sentences quickly by giving their first reactions.

The fact that children in class groups have loud disagreements at times does not mean in all cases that cohesiveness has decreased. It may be only an indication that group pressure is being exerted upon a few members to conform, or it may be that the group is in the process of defining the behavior considered best by the group as a whole. In other words, the children are establishing what is acceptable and what is not acceptable. However, if there is actual deep-seated conflict, and if the group is not helped to resolve the conflict, a split in the group may occur and cohesiveness will be decreased to a great degree.

A positive consequence of cohesiveness is member satisfaction with the work group. Cohesiveness influences productivity, but such effects as increase or decrease of productivity are relative to other group characteristics such as interaction, structure, and norms. Cohesiveness provides the group with the power to adjust and to resist forces which disrupt or dissolve less cohesive groups. This tendency to persistence and self-maintenance is a correlate that has positive value in school groups.

Cohesiveness is closely related to other group properties. The amount and frequency of interaction and communication has effects upon group unity. Cohesiveness is affected by the kind of structure and organization which exists in the group. Shared motives and goals enhance group unity, and, in turn, cohesiveness affects the development of group standards and norms. (Cohesive groups have the power to influence members to accept and conform to the norms which the groups develop, whereas noncohesive groups have no power to produce conformity.)

The satisfaction of members and the attractiveness of the group for them was examined from two viewpoints:

1. The individual and the forces which attract him to the group.
2. The power of the group to attract members.

Cooperation and competition affect not only the processes in groups but also their attractiveness and cohesiveness. Group processes which affect groups negatively or restrictively are generally those which threaten the group or prevent it from goal attainment.

Although cohesiveness is often considered a developmental process, it can be analyzed as having three aspects.

- 1 The establishment of cohesiveness when the group forms.
- 2 The maintenance of cohesiveness throughout the year or the time span of the group's life.

3. The restoration of cohesiveness when group unity is disrupted. Some suggestions were made for the development, maintenance, and restoration of cohesiveness.

The training sections which follow further explore techniques, procedures, and practices for developing unity and cooperation.

## GROUP STRUCTURE AND UNITY

Although the aims, tasks, and relationships of participating members are set down in the formal structuring of the group, additional types of expectancies develop in the interrelationships of individuals. This is the psychological aspect of the classroom group. Within the formal organization, informal groupings arise. Members are in dynamic interaction with one another. This informal association of members provides many member satisfactions or dissatisfactions. The psychological member relationships affect morale, work operations, and member participation in the group. Just as the formal organization sets certain boundaries or limits by providing a framework in which the members work, so does the informal or formal grouping of members set standards and expectancies for member behavior.

Sometimes the way in which the class group is organized creates one or more cliques. A clique is a small, exclusive subgroup found within the structure of a larger group. It consists of a few individuals who have basic interests in common and who are held together by strong bonds of mutual admiration and friendship, or because they may gain advantages by sticking together. Membership in the clique involves strong feelings of friendship, a mutual exchange of confidences, acceptance of a common behavior pattern, and a continued loyalty to the clique in preference to all others in the classroom. The solidarity of the clique is related to a number of personal needs such as need for prestige, need for belonging, and need for having an advantage over other classmates. As solidarity develops, the attitudes and values of each member tend to become the same as those held by all other members, or, stated in other terms, the clique members gradually develop attitudes and values which are shared in common by all the individuals in the group.

If a classroom group develops a number of strong cliques which are in competition with one another, the total group may become very difficult to handle. However, it is possible for a number of subgroups to work together. Any number of strong friendship groups may exist in a classroom and often do. If there is no rivalry or competition for status among these subgroups, they may work in harmony on problems and activities of concern to the large group much the same as individuals work together.

In the following incident the actions taken by the teacher to give the sixth graders status set these children apart from the total group and decreased the unity of the group. Many times the best intentions of teachers create additional problems. It is not helpful to dwell on the mistakes, or even to say that the grouping procedure was poor. At the particular time that the incident was reported, the sixth grade class was split into two sections with the sixth grade group having clique-like qualities that affected communication. It can be predicted with reasonable accuracy that the work climate in the room was unpleasant and that total group morale was low because the members of the total group did not identify with the class as a whole.

It will be noted that the major concern of the teacher was for the effect this split had on instructional practices and individual achievement. Although this concern must be uppermost in the teacher's mind, in order to achieve an improvement in learning, the teacher must direct his efforts toward building a productive and satisfying work organization. The teacher must take actions that will develop a unified cooperative group or his instructional efforts will be negated continually. If conditions are not changed, the teacher will expend large amounts of time and energy merely trying to keep order.

The group must be made attractive to all members, the atmosphere improved, and the members unified.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 1

The class is a fifth and sixth grade combination. Most of the sixth grade group has been placed in the class for these reasons: (1) the sixth grade population was too large for one room, (2) these children were part of a larger group which needed to be divided to discourage disciplinary alliances which had been creating difficulties in prior classrooms, and (3) these sixth graders were having academic difficulties and were working two to five years below grade level.

The fifth grade members of the class were by-and-large at or near grade level. Most had good study and work habits, some were talkers but none were real disciplinary problems.

To help sixth grade members to develop some status and to give feelings of acceptance in nonacademic ways, they were given opportunities as monitors for things they liked to do (bring in audio-visual equipment, set up projectors and speakers, run errands, sort materials, file papers, and so forth). Although they vied to be chosen, many continued to exploit situations (overstayed on errands, abused restroom

permission, rode the equipment cart down the hallway to amuse other classrooms, used classroom routes that would make it possible to poke someone along the way, and so on).

In the classroom, the sixth graders monopolized discussions by calling only and repeatedly on one another and contributed little to the subject at hand, until the teacher brought the train of thought back off the tangent, only to have another member called and the process repeated. Many of the sixth grade boys never turned in homework or even classwork that was more than partially done. They worked in class only when the teacher could work with them directly or individually. None of their parents arrived for conferences even when they had agreed on a time.

Although there were only fifteen sixth graders in a class of thirty-seven, they were the recognized and accepted leaders of the group. Their authority was silently felt. It was challenged neither in the classroom nor on the grounds. The fact that they were part of the larger gang was an unseen force behind the scenes. It kept fifth grade members from presuming to show up weaknesses of the in group by showing off with right answers, better answers, or intelligent remarks. The fifth grade group continued to make academic progress, but social interaction and oral interaction in the total class was stalemated.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. This particular classroom group is split. Repairing such a cleavage is a difficult process. One method involves having the group work together to reach a common goal that is important to both groups in the class. What type of activity might both sections of the group engage in that would be important enough to cause all concerned to work together in achieving a common goal?

2. What other practices might the teacher use to bring about unity and develop a more cooperative group?

### Action Steps

1. The class divides into small groups of three to five members each.

2. The problem is to first decide the possible activities the class might engage in that would present members with a common goal and require their cooperation if the goal is to be achieved.

3. The next step is to decide how such an activity is presented so that no one feels it to be imposed on the group.

#### Concluding Activities

1. Each small group should prepare a report describing its solutions to the problem.
2. Large group discussions should be used to explore the various suggestions.

#### Comment

The difficult part of this management problem is to avoid imposing a project upon the group. Enthusiasm may be aroused at first which will quickly die if the group perceives that the teacher desires them to undertake the activity. The method of presenting such an idea to such a class must be carefully planned and checked to make sure the class would not feel that a teacher-planned project was being imposed upon them.

## THE IMPACT OF TEACHER REACTIONS ON GROUP UNITY

It becomes increasingly apparent that teacher *reactions* to group behavior that indicates a group is having difficulty organizing and developing cooperative relations can be a major obstacle to the development of unity. For example, when class groups enter the room following a play period and members are complaining about the behavior of others, teachers can either act to remedy the situation or they can merely react. Because instructional practices are perceived as the major job of teaching, teachers usually react to what is viewed as undesirable behavior in an effort to control or prevent the behavior from continuing.

Teachers often ignore evidence which indicates that the group needs help in solving problems of human relations. Practice teachers often avoid the group struggle and direct the class toward the work at hand. Or, teachers may tell the class that the classroom is a place for working and studying and that the group must settle its problems out of class. Occasionally, teachers order the children to desist in complaining or reporting difficulties and openly or subtly threaten group members. Unless teachers take action to improve conditions, their reaction to a troubled situation will increase the group's problem. An unsettled group problem puts pressure on the group. Members of the class organization cannot direct full attention, if any at all, to instruction and learning because mem-

bers' energies are directed toward expediting group processes and toward improving group functioning.

Sometimes class groups do develop a self-propelled, self-disciplining organization without much teacher facilitation. It is most usual, however, for groups to experience difficulty because in the play or out-of-school situation problems develop which are not solved because of the time element. When children come into the classroom they are expected to begin work on instructional tasks. Because teachers perceive their job as one of instruction only, they respond inappropriately causing a negative impact on the group. Also, teachers often perceive the situation as one in which a few mal-adjusted children complain because they cannot get along with others. Or they view the situation as one in which the group desires to waste time by discussing events that occurred on the playground.

It is very often true that teachers, with the best intentions, effectively prevent children from solving problems that affect unity and cooperation. This happens, of course, because of the very limited understanding teachers have of group behavior, and because they have been taught to look at individuals singly and do not recognize collective behavior. Taking facilitative action can have a positive impact on class organizational development. Teachers can either take time immediately following the difficulty to facilitate unity or, when this is not feasible, they can tell the class that time will be provided that same day.

The procedure is one of clarifying the situation rather than of solving a specific problem. It involves improving group communication rather than reaching solutions. Cohesiveness and mutual acceptance promote communication. Lack of unity often stems from poor communication and a failure to develop common ways of perceiving situations. Thus, what the teacher must do is to allow for group discussion and a clarification of the disturbing event.

In the incident which follows, a possible way of facilitating the group is to have the group decide on the procedures they might have followed on the playground to avoid the argument and the subsequent outcome. Directing the attention of children to ways that they themselves might have handled the situation turns the attention away from who was right or wrong or who was to blame. The emphasis of the topic is what to do when problems occur. The focus is not upon trying to solve the problem.

## INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 2

*Many times right after recess or lunch time, there are some children who tell on each other. Each individual comes up*

to me to say that one of the others either was not playing in the right area, not playing fair, or was calling others names. If these individuals are not complaining, they are telling others in the class not to be friends with the persons they do not like at the moment.

Many of the girls in the class belong to a larger neighborhood group. These girls do many things together both in and out of school. They seem to get along sometimes, but every so often they have good sized arguments and threaten to fight after school. At this time they divide into several groups, and may remain this way for weeks.

After lunch and recess the constant complaints take time away from the lessons and activities scheduled at these times. *Some of the pupils in the class appear to continue to work, but others appear to be listening to the various complaints.* These interruptions prevent the teacher from beginning work with the class, and prevent study groups from working on assignments.

For example, yesterday when the children came into the classroom after the noon recess, there was an angry undertone of buzzing and restlessness. Those who came in apparently undisturbed soon became upset. Soon about twelve hands were raised wanting to talk. Four boys and two girls came directly to me and began talking without permission. Out of the confusion it was learned that Ricky and David had been verbally fighting over who was to play with a ball. The girls had taken sides and there was a big argument among the girls concerning who was right—Ricky or David. The argument became so loud that the yard teacher had come along and ordered all the children standing in the group to sit on the bench until the bell rang.

I let two children give their version of the incident and then said, "The yard teacher has taken care of the situation so we can forget about it."

The trouble was the class didn't forget about it. The whole situation flared up again soon after the arithmetic lesson started and continued until the class was threatened with thirty minutes after school for wasting time.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. The suggestion has been made that the teacher in this case could direct the attention of the class toward developing a process of handling problems when they occur on the play-

ground and the teacher is not around to help the children resolve the difficulty. What is the nature of such a process? How would it develop?

2. Phrasing the introductory statements and the basic goal of the discussion is the most difficult aspect of the process. How can the teacher change the direction of the group interaction so that the members of the class become involved in developing a method for handling difficulties when they arise?

### Action Steps

1. The class divides into groups of four or five persons.
2. Each group will develop an opening statement as well as a statement (or statements) intended to involve the group in planning for a method for handling arguments when they occur outside the classroom.
3. When the groups have developed several possible ways of approaching the topic, the discussion should turn to an evaluation of the statements.

### Concluding Activities

1. Each group will demonstrate their formulations of the statements to the large group.
2. Members of the group will note whether the statements involve only a statement of the topic, whether the objective is included and made clear, and whether it was necessary to frame the problem by use of a series of questions.

### Comment

It must be clearly understood that the teacher is attempting to facilitate group integration. The teacher's major objective is to provide a situation in which the children can begin, at least, to work together. The concern then is for the process rather than the outcome of the children's planning. As such a discussion would develop, if the children tended to revert to arguments of who was right or wrong, the teacher should redirect the discussion by either reformulating the purpose of the discussion session, or by asking the children to state what the objectives of the discussion session are.

## INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION

It has been mentioned previously that education stresses liking of members for one another to develop good group relations. There is an assumption in the literature of small group research that the group will be more attractive to members if individuals like one



another. However, it must be remembered that interpersonal attraction among some members does not necessarily lead to group attractiveness or to unity or cooperation. If the group itself is attractive, it is more likely that members will like one another.

Because it is an almost impossible task to make individuals like one another by any direct means, particularly if patterns of mutual dislike have been established previously, teachers must take other approaches to improve interpersonal attraction among members.

Various methods have been suggested, but whatever a teacher does will involve communication. The communication-interaction network is a most significant group property, and any method employed to improve relations among individuals will involve the communication-interaction network.

One method of improving members' liking for one another is to allow discussion that enables class members to gain common perceptions about matters that are important to them. This involves skill on the part of the teacher in guiding these discussions. The most difficult part of this practice, however, is knowing what problems to select for discussion. How can a teacher select the problems that are most significant for a given group?

Several criteria can be used to guide teachers' judgments:

1. Is the issue one of critical concern to the present group?
2. Does the problem deal with an issue which affects group functioning?
3. Is it an issue that can be acted upon, or is it an established and unsolvable fact that reflects different views and opinions?

The last problem is the most difficult to handle because a discussion does not lead to any positive action. However, it is important, at times, for individuals to be given the opportunity to exchange views—a feeling of uneasiness can exist in a group when it is not clear how others perceive a particular situation.

For example, the children in a fourth grade class learned that two sixth grade boys were going to have a fight on the way home from school. One boy told the brother of a fourth grader that he was going to beat him up after the boy left the protection of the school grounds. Teachers were to be kept ignorant of the fight, but the fourth grade teacher overheard a discussion and was aware that the fight was scheduled.

The fourth grade, which had factions and little unity, shared a common reaction to the announcement of the fight. They were upset because there was no reason for the challenger to pick on the fourth grader's brother. Differences of opinion existed as to what action the defendant should take, however.

The problem of what the teacher should do to stop the fight is

not the main point for discussion here. It was a problem because the school was located in a low socio-economic neighborhood and the code of the children from the ethnic-minority group was to fight. The teacher was from the same ethnic minority, and had she reported to the administrator she would have been viewed as a squealer by the children.

Although the students accepted fights as a way of settling differences, they were puzzled because this fight was to take place without a reason. The challenger was reported to have said that he was going to beat up everybody and that this guy was the first.

Of course, the problem was not one that was solvable by the group, but it was an issue of extreme concern to them, and the situation, since it was unclear, was one in which class members desired to test their perceptions. A sharing of what was known and how the situation was perceived could reduce stress and possibly bring the group members closer together. The fight is merely an illustration of a condition that existed in a group that the teacher could use as a means to bring members closer together and, perhaps, to increase interpersonal liking and attraction.

The next simulated exercise contains two incidents which are similar only in that they lack unity and that some members dislike one another.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 3

A. In my fifth grade class I have approximately eight to ten children (both boys and girls) who argue a great deal. Often one or two of them come into the classroom accusing another class member of some misbehavior. The person accused generally denies the charge in a loud voice and calls the accuser a liar. Then another child of this subgroup joins in one side or the other, also in a loud voice. Then the argument grows as others in the class join in. Meanwhile the rest of the class sit and listen, occasionally laughing or talking with each other until the argument dies down or is stopped.

B. My assignment is a first and second grade combination class—eleven second graders and fourteen first graders. A second grade boy and a first grade girl have trouble constantly on the playground. This causes the second graders to take sides against the first graders and very heated arguments take place. Hitting and kicking are not uncommon.

The two grades are separated and seated on opposite sides of the room. However, many activities throughout the day are combined, and the hostility between groups causes many difficulties.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

## Training Problem

1. What are some of the possible ways the teacher may encourage interpersonal attraction in the groups described in the two incidents?
2. If group discussion is used, do the incidents provide clues that may be used as a basis for discussion topics?
3. How can discussion topics be phrased so that children can become oriented to the discussion in the beginning?

## Action Steps

1. The class can divide into two training groups. One group takes incident A, the other works with incident B.
2. Each group decides upon ways interpersonal attraction may be developed in their particular class groups.
3. If a discussion technique is used, the trainees should pay particular attention to formulating the topic for discussion.

## Concluding Activities

1. Each training group will present its conclusions to the total class.
2. These conclusions will be analyzed and suggestions will be made for further improving the process.

## Comments

Children will vary in the degree to which they can handle affects which stem from likes and dislikes between members. Although adults often avoid a straightforward confrontation of feelings, children do not. Interpersonal aggression should be minimized, but teachers should take care not to stress what is proper, or to moralize. The purpose of discussions is to improve interpersonal attraction, to clarify ambiguous situations, and to make it possible for children to share perceptions. The teacher's problem is to solve a problem; the process is not problem solving—there is a difference. Nothing may be resolved from such discussions. They are engaged in to bring the group members closer together through shared perceptions.

## Favorable Group Appraisals

A common assumption held by educators is that all children desire to belong and to be accepted by class group members. This is true, of course, only when the group is attractive to members. Children usually desire acceptance, but individuals seek affiliation

with others in a group when belonging provides a means for satisfying personal needs and for maintaining or increasing one's own self-esteem. A group that receives many negative evaluations, or evaluations that are perceived as negative, will not be attractive to members. Many times children make unattractive situations less frustrating and more satisfying by resisting teachers' control efforts. However, this does little more than reduce the pressure created by poor classroom conditions.

When school and classroom conditions cause students in class groups to experience constant frustration and the groups respond with apathy, indifference, and decreased involvement in work and group affairs, little is left to attract individuals to these groups.

When the classroom organization is composed of individuals who, on the whole, are passive and docile, any child who adapts to the situation by using aggressive, defensive measures, stands out in contrast to the others. This could be the case in the simulation exercise which follows. Of course, the treatment the child receives will increase his dislike of school, but it appears that his behavior in part results from a lack of group attractiveness. He prefers to be removed from the group even though the teacher perceives the removal as punishment. It appears that others in the class also do not find the situation to their liking; the inference is that the general mode of response is apathy and lack of involvement. Because children cannot be forced to like a situation, the situation itself must be changed. One method is to make positive, favorable appraisals of the group. Increasing the group's status in the eyes of its members helps to satisfy individual needs for status. No one wishes to belong to a poor group.

The prime objective of positive group appraisal is to increase the attractiveness of the group in the eyes of each member. It is simply an attempt to think clearly about total group performance, whether in the management or instructional area. Group performance can be appraised succinctly by describing the best aspects of group behavior. If some areas need improvement, the situation can be reviewed constructively and subtle suggestions made to the effect that the group can change if given the opportunity. Positive appraisals involve a searching process—it is necessary to take stock of all the good attributes the group possesses. Since most actions teachers take are based in part on conscious or unconscious judgments about the group, the searching aspect of the process is important. When teachers begin to look for areas where they can make honest, favorable appraisals, they can find them, and they will communicate this in nonverbal as well as verbal ways. At times the appraisals are more in the form of reassurance—the idea expressed is, "Of course you can do it." It is not possible to dictate the words because each teacher has his own individualized way of expressing himself, and many approaches may be taken. The process calls for

sincerity more than technique. Overconcern for a special technique may stand in the way of successful communication. The major objective is to let the group members know that they perform very well in numerous, specific situations, and to frequently remind the group that it is a good group.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 4

Last year John spent most of the school year sitting outside the door to his room. His teacher could not make him perform the work assigned to his group. He persistently disturbed other children in the group. A conference was arranged with the teacher, the principal, and the parents participating. The parents could not understand the boy's behavior, as he was always a good boy at home. He had spent much time in the office and had been spanked a number of times by the principal.

Conferences with John himself were unprofitable. His answers to questions about the cause of his behavior were always the same. He did not like the children, the class, or the school. Although he did not state this, he did not like the teacher either. Once he said, "The whole class is no good. You don't think we're good!"

The school psychiatrist, after testing, recommended love, praise, kindness, and so forth. This I'm sure the teacher gave, but in all fairness to the rest of the group, John could not be kept in the room, and with the approval of the principal he sat outside the door. Also, when lining up to come in from the playground, he was always asked to go directly to the room and stand by the door.

Failure to obey and disturbing others by whistling, drumming on his desk, or carrying on a monologue were John's main problems. The rest of the class was quiet, so John's behavior was even more noticeable. He was obedient in only two situations. They were those which involved going to the door from the playground and sitting there by the hour.

I don't believe in placing a child where I can't see him. What would have been a possible solution?

### INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

#### Training Problem

1. If John thought the class was no good, and others in the class were very quiet, it is probable that the class was not

attractive to most of the children. How can a teacher change this situation?

2. The teacher reporting the incident is concerned over the fact that John is outside the room and out of view. What can be done about John?

3. If the climate in the whole school is somewhat punitive, must the teacher adopt similar practices? Does the fact that John sits outside the door most of the time have any effect on the rest of the class?

### Action Steps

1. Divide into small discussion groups of no more than five members.

2. Each group should decide on all the possible ways the class could be made more attractive to the children.

3. Discussion can be used to explore various suggestions as what to do about John.

### Concluding Activities

1. Various groups report their conclusions to the large group.

2. After hearing the reports, the large group can find all the points of general agreement and discuss those points where there may be disagreement.

### Comments

Although the problem in the incident is presented as involving only one individual, there is considerable evidence that a severe group problem exists. Many times changing conditions in the group will solve individual problems, or at least ease the situation considerably.

## COMPETITION: EFFECTS ON COOPERATION

For many years competition in elementary classrooms was deplored, and teachers were trained to avoid the use of practices that created competitive situations. More recently, the literature of education has contained material that states it is most unrealistic not to employ some competitive teaching practices. In other instances, although competition may not be mentioned, the practices advocated tend toward competition, and certainly are not designed to increase cooperation within the classroom system. For example, it has been suggested to teachers that they select well-liked students

and teach them to be kindly, understanding, and patient with children who are not so well-liked. In other cases, teachers are told to select well-liked students and give them training in how to reward and encourage acceptable behavior from rejected students. Another suggestion given is for teachers to take the low-status, socially ineffective students and teach them how to work with and learn from the well-behaved and well-liked students. Of course, these practices set up a status hierarchy in the classroom which interferes with normal group development, and these status groupings tend to decrease cohesiveness and cooperativeness. Such a group organization, it is predicted, would soon develop into a competitive situation. One subgroup would compete to maintain its prestige as being the good section of the class. The other would be forced to live up to the label of being socially ineffective, and the poorly-behaved section of the class.

Any number of individualized instructional methods tend to make the work situation more competitive than cooperative. Studies show, however, that children who work to achieve an individual reward exhibit less positive behavior and more negative reactions than when they work together and the group is rewarded.

Some educators claim that competitive and cooperative tendencies can be developed to benefit both the individual and the group. They claim that both cooperative and competitive atmospheres are to be fostered in order to provide a proper motivational climate. It is interesting to note that teachers are not told how to develop both a cooperative and competitive climate.

A number of research studies have investigated cooperative versus competitive interdependent groups. One by Deutsch<sup>11</sup> studied the effect of cooperation and competition upon group processes. He found that a situation in which the group members were in a cooperative relationship was more attractive than one in which they were competing. Cooperative classroom groups were created by telling the members that everyone would be given the same grade depending upon the quality of the work. The competitive groups were told that each member would be graded on his merits relative to others in the group. The cooperative groups displayed behavior indicating high cohesiveness. Compared to the competitive groups, the members liked one another more, made more attempts to influence one another, and were friendlier. It was demonstrated that the cooperative groups possessed a number of characteristics which indicated high cohesiveness—coordination of effort, diversity in the amount of contribution per member, subdivision of activity,

---

<sup>11</sup> Morton Deutsch, "The Effects of Cooperation and Competition Upon Group Process," in D. Cartwright and A. Zander (eds.), *Group Dynamics*, New York, Harper & Row, 1968, pp. 461-482.

attentiveness to fellow members, good communication, orderliness, and good group function. The results regarding most of the activities were found to favor cooperative behavior.

The method used to develop cooperativeness was to present problems in human relations to the experimental groups studied. The groups were ranked according to the best solutions given. Individuals received a group score or grade. It is not suggested that this method is practical or desirable for use in the elementary classroom. However, cooperativeness will be facilitated in classroom groups if teachers help the members find practical solutions to their own human relations problems or encourage all the members of the class organization to find a solution to a problem which is of interest and concern to everyone.

Sometimes class groups divide into two or more independent subgroups from the first moment they meet together as a group. In other instances, class groups are split and divided into more or less permanent teams organized for games at recess and noon play periods. When the games are made competitive, group functioning is affected negatively. There is little coordination of effort in the classroom; there is less orderliness, little friendliness during discussions, and the communication of ideas is affected negatively.

Whenever members of an interdependent group are set against one another, or if for some reason a division in the total group develops, it is very difficult to get them to work together cooperatively. Problems are caused, also, if one class is set against another in the same school. If classes are pitted against one another to win a prize for having the highest attendance at a parent-teacher meeting, for example, it often causes hostilities to develop between rooms. This hostility can carry over to the playground, the cafeteria, or the assembly. It can affect the total school climate and make it less satisfying.

Evidence indicates that members of interdependent groups do not want to have any situations imposed upon the organization which cause competition or which create discriminatory cleavage among members of the group. It seems quite clear that friendly, supportive relationships are more important to most children than is individual achievement. When conditions are not conducive to cooperative, supportive, and friendly relationships, the children become dissatisfied and their ability to devote attention and energy to school tasks and learning is substantially lessened.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 5

Usually after recess or noon, children come and tell me about some children fighting, going out of their specified area, kicking balls around, and so forth. This last week a noon



aide took a ball away from the whole class because she said they could not play together. Some children who are doing the right thing get upset, angry, and disgusted with the others who always seem to cause trouble.

Also, another problem is that one-half of the children seem to feel that they are better than (better-behaved) or smarter than the other half of the class. (The children I have come from two different teachers and came as two groups.) The good half of the class complains a lot, and the others retaliate by calling them tattletalers and cry babies. They won't play together and the troubles caused on the playground carry over into the classroom. It is very difficult to teach a class that *spends a lot of time giving dirty looks.*

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. A class having the characteristics of the one described in the incident is assigned to you. How can you involve the group in cooperative planning activities to alleviate the type of problems described in the incident?
2. The nature of the group indicates the need for special planning. Why and in what areas?
3. Could the teacher use the situation involving the ball to increase cooperation and unity?
4. When students complain, how can the teacher react to prevent further cleavage?

### Action Steps

1. Divide into groups of three to five members.
2. Decide all the possible ways that the teacher might act to increase cooperation and unity in this class.
3. Plan the opening statements the teacher might make to involve the total group in cooperative planning.

### Concluding Activities

1. Each group leader or recorder in turn reports the solutions reached by members of the small discussion groups.
2. The instructor or a class member summarizes each report on the blackboard.
3. In the time remaining, the class analyzes the various reports in terms of whether the teacher actions proposed do strike directly at the problem or whether they might evoke additional problems.

### Comments

The principle problem facing the teacher is to find ways of making all the group members feel that they are a good, well-behaved group. Any actions taken must not reduce this feeling, which is already held by part of the class. Also, moralization, appeals, or even some types of praise must be avoided since these practices will be ineffective with this group.

## LACK OF COOPERATION

Unless children in the classroom cooperate with one another and with the teacher, problems arise which can lead to frustration and bad feeling. One way of gaining cooperation is for teachers to make clear to the class members what the objectives are, i.e., state clearly what it is that needs to be done, and then let the class decide how the task is to be accomplished. Children can then use their own ideas of how to accomplish many routine tasks such as cleaning up after an art period or preparing for a lesson. The process of exchanging ideas and reaching decisions increases unity. This is due in part to the fact that the process of deciding how to do a particular activity allows for interaction and exchange of ideas. It also creates a leveling effect. It is not necessarily the best reader who has the best ideas for carrying out classroom tasks.

A class group that lacks unity and does not cooperate may find it very difficult to reach agreement on ways of accomplishing even routine chores. In these cases, teachers who attempt to have the group decide how they are going to do a particular task must expect that the group members will disagree and not reach a decision. If no consensus is reached, the class should agree to try out several solutions. To start to achieve cooperation by this method requires that enough time be allowed so that each person who desires to may contribute. It does not mean, however, that a few can monopolize the discussion. It must be kept in mind at all times that the main objective is to allow for group interaction which hopefully will lead to unity, cooperation, and better working relationships.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 6

I have a sixth grade class in an average income community. The children do not lack basic needs such as food, clothing, and shelter. The group consists of children having good average ability. The I.Q. runs from 90 to 120.

There is a lot of bickering among the children as they come

into the room. They argue back and forth in unpleasant tones and it appears that they are unaware of time passing. The first class period is over before they get started on their work. They waste time getting materials ready to begin work. They ask unimportant questions, pretend to look up things that are irrelevant, and before much work is accomplished, it is time to shift to another class period. More time is then consumed in switching from one class to the next.

One problem seems to be getting this class organized and ready to begin work in a reasonable amount of time. A second problem is trying to keep them at their work when they are thinking about some real or fancied wrong done to them by a classmate.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. Poor personal relations, lack of unity, and an unwillingness to cooperate are behavior characteristics of this class. Where can the teacher start to build unity?
2. Should the teacher try to help children resolve their differences, or is a more indirect approach preferable?
3. What are the possible methods the teacher might employ?

### Action Steps

1. The class may divide into committee groups of approximately five persons each.
2. The groups will work as a unit to plan the facilitative practices the teacher will perform to increase the unity of this group.

### Concluding Activities

1. After planning the steps the teacher will take to improve conditions in this class group, the small groups will reassemble and each will present one report.
2. If the reports are similar, the small-group leader will report only the areas of differences.
3. The large group will discuss and analyze the reports and try to reach a common agreement as to the plan of action the teacher should follow.

### Comments

It will take time away from instruction to develop a truly unified group. In view of the time presently wasted because

students do not get ready for work and seem to be unable to concentrate on learning, is the time spent on facilitating group processes justified?

## RESTRICTIVE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

The job of teaching is always complicated because children in formally organized classroom groups feel a certain resistance to authority, and yet they both expect and want the authority of teacher leadership to a certain degree. They want the security that authority gives when it is used appropriately, yet they also desire the independence necessary to establish and maintain group functions. Appropriate classroom-management practices do not employ techniques that are highly restrictive of group processes (when restrictive practices are interpreted to mean the use of threats, prevention of interaction, or the use of practices that do not allow for some group independence). Managing the classroom group is involved because at times children must be restrained in a way that does not minimize their sense of independence.

Classroom management practices under which children are told what they are to do, how they are to do it, and what will happen if instructions are not followed to the letter, have exceedingly adverse affects. Restrictive practices cause groups to react in various ways. Some groups exhibit active *negativism* and *open hostility*. In others, the atmosphere is tense and the children may show considerable anxiety. Some children appear docile but are quite dependent upon the teacher. In other cases, classes are apathetic, indifferent, and the children lack enthusiasm and interest.

Groups that are openly hostile and aggressive because of restrictive practices may exhibit a high degree of solidarity without being truly unified and integrated. Groups whose members are fearful also may show some signs of cohesiveness. Quiet, tractable groups that are highly dependent upon the teacher often lack unity, whereas indifferent, apathetic class groups, because of infrequent interaction, may give few signs of being cohesive.

Evidence explains the various group reactions to authoritarian or restrictive practices and accounts for the difference in degrees of unity as well as in how groups react when made hostile by repression.

In some groups solidarity is increased when the group is threatened or prevented from integrating and working out a satisfactory system of functioning. When teachers continually thwart group processes, the groups may become hostile and aggressive. The more cohesive they become, the less restrained they may be in expressing hostility. Teachers do not often have hostile feelings expressed to them directly. Members seem to express this hostility toward each

other or act in aggressive ways which may affect the total group negatively, and yet member relations seem not to be affected adversely. This type of situation cannot be managed by the teacher; the result achieved is then satisfying to the group.

Threats which create fear and tension can also increase unity. In these cases the group becomes a source of security for its members. Members of a group, when threatened, seek emotional support and therefore form close relationships with one another. This cooperation helps them to develop ways of adapting to threats.

Children who react to restrictive management practices with apparent docile acceptance are most likely threatened to such a degree that uniting with others offers no solution. These are groups which often cause management problems because members constantly seek security and approval from the teacher at inappropriate times and places. Also, if the teacher must step aside to speak to a visitor, or is called away from such a class and leaves someone else in charge, the children may be totally unable to manage themselves even for a very short period of time.

If teachers find their classes behaving in the ways described, they should examine their methods of exercising authority. They need to direct attention toward creating conditions under which children will accept their authority with a minimum of resentment and resistance.

Because it is difficult to change one's own behavior patterns, and equally difficult to change hostile resistant group behavior, a teacher whose class behaves as the one in the next incident must use a variety of facilitative practices to make the group situation more attractive and to direct the children's energies into more constructive channels. The process of establishing better working procedures calls for planning group decisions and the use of group evaluation to determine how well the plans are working.

In spite of the fact that the interpersonal relationships in this class seem to be very poor, a study of the incident makes it apparent that the class is enjoying the situation. The members have found ways to successfully put the teacher at a decided disadvantage. Evidently the group does not fear retaliation, although it must be assumed that the teacher does carry out his threats. Sometimes a group that has united in resisting the teacher does not mind collectively sharing the punishment as long as the group has succeeded in venting hostility by refusing to cooperate.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 7

Four monitors are assigned to clean up the paints and brushes after the group has finished working on its activity in

social studies. This job should take about four to five minutes.

At the time of this incident the monitors were still out of the room and ten minutes had passed. I asked the class, "What has happened to the monitors?"

About five or six children began talking all at once and then others joined the discussion. The class members said that the monitors had told them that they (the monitors) were going to take their time in cleaning up on this particular day.

After twelve minutes the monitors came back into the room. I said to them, "Where were you and what were you doing?"

At this the class began hurling accusations toward the monitors. "You said you were going to take your time." With this, there began back and forth shouting of, "We did not!" and, "You did, too!" To the monitors the class members were saying, "You are trying to get the class in trouble!" This called forth retorts from monitors such as, "You need a bust in the mouth!" and the answer back, "Try it!"

At this point the only way to stop the yelling and confusion was to say loudly, "Stop it, all of you, or you will all stay in fifteen minutes during lunch period!"

Threats such as this work. They work since they know I will keep my word and carry out the threat. However, I know it is not a particularly good way of handling the group. However, you cannot let such a chaotic condition continue, so a teacher hasn't much choice.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. After the teacher discovered that the monitors plan to stay out of the room, what should he do and say after they return? Precisely what could the teacher do to prevent the outburst?
2. When the situation reached the stage where the children began accusing one another, what could the teacher do instead of threatening the class?
3. How might the teacher use this situation to make a constructive attack upon the problem of this group?

### Action Steps

1. The students are to divide into two groups. Group 1 will prepare for dramatizing the incident. Group 2, the audience, will discuss problem 3 while the preparation is in process.
2. A volunteer will be selected to be the teacher. Four

other members will play the part of the monitors, and the rest of the group will be members of the class.

3. The scene will be played twice—once as it was described in the incident, and the second time, with the teacher acting to change the situation before the accusations began.

4. In the second scene, the members of Group 1 should not attempt to act as they think children might, but should merely respond in the way the teacher's remarks and actions cause them to feel.

#### Concluding Activities

1. The audience can comment on how the teacher's actions in scene 2 appeared to them.

2. The members of the class in group 2 can state how the teacher's actions affected them.

3. The total group can make further suggestions as to the actions the teacher might take in this situation.

#### Comments

The purpose of enacting two scenes is to present a contrast between the two situations. In scene 1, the teacher reacts to the conditions which evolved. In scene 2, the teacher takes actions which should lead to positive reactions from class members.

# 5

## ESTABLISHING STANDARDS AND COORDINATING WORK PROCEDURES

### INTRODUCTION

There are few teacher-group transactions that teachers perform which create as many problems as that of setting behavioral standards. Present methods often generate time-consuming conflicts between teachers and the groups they teach. When standards for behavior supposedly are established by children and then ignored, the children are not only failing to behave in acceptable or desired ways, they also are disregarding the standards. As a consequence teachers are faced with two problems of control.

Present methods of establishing standards act, in the long run, to discourage precisely what they are supposed to encourage—namely, cooperative behavior. Before describing an alternative approach to facilitating cooperation and establishing guidelines for behavioral performance, some concepts are developed concerning the nature of standards, related factors, and consequences of some methods.

### THE NATURE OF STANDARDS

To begin with, a working definition of a standard is required. A standard is a statement or a commonly accepted understanding of what is appropriate behavior in certain specified situations. It is a general agreement as to how something is done or what conduct should routinely prevail, and thereby facilitates the operation of the class as a whole. The educational use of the term usually refers to the collective behavior of children and how they conduct themselves moving in and out of the classroom, in the school building, and on the playground. Standards are not restrictions on the freedom of individual behavior, but are guidelines to the appropriate behavior in various situations. The intent is to provide conditions so that



each child is allowed the most possible freedom of action for himself without infringing on the rights of others. Standards or policies are evolved and agreed upon by the faculty and children of an elementary school to achieve an economy of operation and to reduce the number of problems. Many children know, or think they know, some of the expected school behavior. It cannot be assumed, however, that children automatically know how they are expected to conduct themselves in a formal organization as large as the school. Reaching agreements regarding appropriate conduct assists in clarifying the total situation for children, as well as in gaining individual commitment to the standards.

Standards of conduct then, involve the collective behavior of children when they move in and out of the classroom, through the building itself, and when they are on the playground. They often include appropriate member interactions or ways children should relate to one another. If each classroom was an isolated work place, completely separated from other rooms in the school, the number of standards or guidelines could be reduced substantially. The noise factor and other effects would not have to be considered.

Work standards differ from standards of conduct only in that they refer to ways of working in the classroom during the processes of instruction. They can mean levels of achievement, i.e., the amount of work to be produced, but the term, as used here, refers only to interpersonal relations and standards of behavior while work is in progress.

Standards of conduct are evolved and agreed upon in the elementary school to achieve an economy of operation and to reduce the number of problems which might occur if such agreements were not made. Work standards relate to interaction processes which facilitate instruction. Children know to a degree how they are expected to conduct themselves in the school. Young children know less about work standards. The process of reaching agreements regarding appropriate behavior makes clear what is expected and what is considered "best."

Much of the difficulty in establishing effective behavioral standards stems from an inadequate conception of what standards are or should be. When classroom standards are perceived as rules of conduct, they acquire a quality that is self-defeating in the long run. Standards of behavior that are treated as a set of commandments for ordering conduct negate precisely that which they are designed to encourage—namely, a fairly smooth, continuous operation of the class group which encourages constructive relations among members and reduces disruptive acts which upset the work. Instead, standards, as established at present, frequently act as barriers to a smoothly functioning system. As stated before, they do so because they create more behavior problems for the teacher than

they originally were designed to reduce. When teachers exact adherence to standards which the class members apparently have agreed upon, the effects will be deleterious. One of the obvious costs of establishing a set of standards which are resisted by some or all of the classroom members is the amount of time consumed in enforcing or re-establishing them. All too frequently this situation engenders a conflict between teachers and pupils. Teachers insist and children resist until finally teachers must take threatening and punitive actions to make children conform to "their own" standards.

A set of standards is not a list of prescribed ways of behaving which are punishable if not followed. Rather, they are statements suggesting desirable ways of behaving and which children work toward achieving. They should help children anticipate, understand, and accept the expected and most desirable ways of acting and reacting in the school situation. In most instances children cannot make the decisions as to what behavior should be. They cannot decide, however commendable, that they can run at a high speed down the hall in order to reach their room in the quickest possible time and thereby have more time for study. The safety element and consideration for other classes in the building are among the many reasons why such a decision is not only unfeasible but also impossible. If the standards relate to conduct in the room, the major decisions as to the nature of the conduct or the objectives desired are made by the teacher. Or, at least, the teacher places the limitations upon what is possible. If the standards reflect school policies, rules, or regulations, then these policies (or objectives) usually stem from the administrative office. Hopefully, the teachers have agreed on the need for these policies and together have decided how to implement them in the classroom (except, of course, those policies which have a legal base). All this leaves very little leeway for the children to make decisions and establish policies. It does create a situation, however, which calls for common agreements as to how policies are to be carried out and objectives reached.

## FACTORS RELATING TO SCHOOL NORMS AND STANDARDS

In the past, educators who espoused permissive practices, implicitly at least, resisted the idea of practices which restricted freedom. It has never been possible, and it is even less possible in today's schools, for individual children, individual teachers, and even members of the administrative staff to be completely independent and free to carry out their function as they see it. Therefore, though some educators in theory subscribe to the values extolling indi-

vidual independence, freedom of thought and action, and the development of each individual's unique self—they understand that all this must be accomplished within the highly organized, structured, and traditionally bound framework of the elementary school.

In defense of our educational system and the persons associated with the school organization, it must be stated that although educators, administrators, and teachers hold the values relating to individual freedom and independence, they themselves are not independent. They are responsible to the authority of school boards and the wishes of people in the community. The general public rightfully can expect school personnel to stress the educational objectives they desire for their children. However, community groups often specify the means and methods by which certain objectives are to be achieved. Further, local, state, and federal agencies make many demands. Finally, society expects a certain conformity of behavior in the school, a continuity of long standing school norms relating to teacher practices and pupil conduct, even though some norms were established in the era of log cabins and horses and buggies. Although there is a hue and cry for educational improvements in the elementary school, the demands for greater efficiency and improved results are accompanied by strong resistance to any drastic changes in the traditional organization and established practices. Particularly this is true in the area of pupil behavior and conduct. A common view is that it is the teacher's job, tolerating no nonsense, to see that children accept and work on school assignments. On the other hand, the majority of parents expect also that teachers insist on high behavioral standards, yet not take or hold a hard line where their own child is concerned.

Another factor related to maintenance of rules and order is school size. As school costs have risen, school districts have consolidated. As populations have shifted to cities, school systems and individual schools have increased in size. An increase in the size of any organization or institution necessitates an increase in organizational controls, more conformity with established practices, and adherence to norms relating to work and conduct. School-board policies, administrative directives, school rules, and room standards are necessary to coordinate all the activities of a large school in order to assure that the learning program moves forward.

The school administrator is usually responsible, with faculty help, for establishing building and playground conditions. It is the teacher who is responsible for seeing that the pupils in the class follow instructions, meet standards of behavioral performance, and comply with expectations related to working and playing together in and out of the classroom.

Some sort of orderly relationships are necessary for the educational organization to achieve the objectives it was designed to

accomplish. An important management function is to facilitate this process. Children need guidelines to make decisions about general conduct in the classroom and the school and to establish mutual behavior. However, in most cases, standards of conduct have been established previously. A standard of conduct defines more or less the expected best behavior in a particular situation. It should follow that establishing standards of conduct refers to the processes employed by teachers to help children define and reach agreements as to what the standards should be. This concept is inaccurate. As mentioned previously, in many cases the situation demands an already defined pattern of conduct for safety or other reasons, or the conduct has already been prescribed by school policy or custom. In other words, children cannot develop standards which are already firmly established. They cannot agree on how they will conduct themselves in situations when rules and policies already prescribe behavior. They cannot decide for themselves that fighting is an inappropriate way to settle disagreements when a rule is already in force which prohibits fighting. Therefore, the management task is not to establish standards, but to assist the children in reaching decisions as to the best ways of meeting prescribed conditions.

It is important for teachers to recognize that the children who come to school do not leave their personalities at home. Individuals, either singly or in small groups, continue to have attitudes, beliefs, and certain aspirations of their own. They seek to achieve their own aims and desires even in the regulated classroom situation. However, most will act in approved ways providing that their feelings of self-worth are enhanced through significant opportunities to voice opinions concerning the rules and policies which affect them. The problem is how to give them a voice when norms and standards are already prescribed.

## QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

Some challenging aspects of the teacher's function are contained in the following questions.

1. How can acceptable and desirable behavioral standards which contribute to learning objectives be established while also allowing for self-expression and development of individual members?

2. How can teachers handle small groups of children or individuals acting for the group who challenge, defy, or ignore school rules and classroom standards? What does a teacher do when the total class group disregards a behavioral standard necessary for establishing study conditions so that each child can work successfully on his assigned tasks?

3. How can teachers avoid taking actions which, at times, cause even the youngest children to assert their independence and restore their dignity by resisting?

4. When requests for compliance are ignored, how can teachers insist on adherence to rules, standards, or requirements without lowering a child's concept of self and feelings of self-worth?

5. How can teachers satisfactorily solve the dilemma created by a commitment to educational principles and values directed toward democratic practices and the development of independent, creative individuals, yet in actual practice find that to maintain order they must insist upon conformity to school rules and behavioral standards?

Whatever the practices or methods used by teachers to establish needed behavioral standards and work goals, they must remember that they are dealing with the total class group and not with each individual separately on a one-to-one or teacher-pupil basis.

If they are to act effectively in the development of shared guidelines for behavior, teachers must have knowledge and develop skill in the following areas.

1. Knowledge of interrelated variables and conditions which result in common predictable group reactions to establishing and adhering to room standards.
2. Understanding the effects of group standards and norms upon individual behavior.
3. Situational analysis: skill in sizing up immediate situations.
4. Understanding of ways to meet immediate situations as well as the steps to take to establish satisfactory long-term conditions.

In addition, teachers must acquire the conceptual and operational skills needed to change established group standards which are at variance with school policies and practices.

The establishment of some kind of order is a necessity since no classroom system functions automatically. Teachers must have the knowledge and skill to direct and guide individual and collective behavior so that cooperation is maximized and resistance is minimized, and so that children will conduct themselves in ways that foster good working conditions for all in the school organization. To do this they must have a clear concept of the nature of the task they are attempting. The process of establishing standards involves developing a number of behavioral guidelines. These guidelines should be operational. To say, "We should be quiet," for example, is not operational because the word quiet means different things to different people. To a child coming from a household of ten people quiet may mean something quite different than it does

to an only child who lives in an apartment where rules for quiet are rigidly maintained. To obtain the degree of quietness necessary in a school building where many other children are working and studying, plans of action may be developed so that successful performance of the operation requires that the children do not talk or make noise.

By trying to help children to develop a set of standards that concur with the norms, policies, or rules already established in the school, teachers are, in effect, depriving their class groups of important sources of self-esteem. The activity of establishing guidelines or planning ways to meet already established policies can contribute to each class member's sense of self-worth and to a conception shared by everyone in the class that they belong to a work group that has significant skills. Trying to force children to establish standards that coincide with what the school demands, and telling them they are *their own* standards, causes children, in many cases, to rebel. The present system robs children of an opportunity to think and plan and removes an opportunity for them to raise their self-esteem. The present method of engineered standards is antithetical to improvement goals. Although present methods are designed to encourage children to act in prescribed ways, they tend to discourage children from trying to *improve* their behavior.

Before studying processes for setting behavioral guidelines and planning ways of meeting school policies, group norms and their relation to standards of behavior will be examined.

## THE RELATION OF NORMS TO CLASSROOM STANDARDS

It is important to understand the characteristics of class group norms because they have implications for classroom behavioral standards. Norms are related to standards in that if group members perceive that the school's standards for behavior are the best and most appropriate ways of behaving and that adhering to these standards helps to achieve the purpose and furthers the operation of the group, then the group itself will tend to induce conformity to school norms and standards. Often members of a newly formed classroom group very quickly exhibit a concern for the conformity of all members to certain norms of behavior. Any child who deviates becomes the recipient of a high rate of interaction and of pressure which is exerted by other members to induce him to conform to the norms in question. If after a period of time, the child refuses to conform, he is likely to be ignored or rejected by other members in the class.

Norms may be conceptualized further by examining some of the characteristics which may be observed in this highly complex phenomena. For example, they are evaluative in nature. They refer to "best" behavior or desired conduct or preferred ways of thinking and acting. They more or less stipulate what is most valued and what is best to believe. Once norms become established they provide a reference point by which members can guide their actions, strivings, and aspirations. They help individuals perceive and judge what is appropriate or inappropriate, what is right and what is wrong, and what may be approved or disapproved.

Norms also specify the amount or degree of behavior expected. For example, a class group may expect certain behavior from members reacting to individuals who engage in name calling. This expectancy or norm governs what reaction is considered appropriate in this specific instance. For example, if a child small in size instigates the name calling and a larger child hits him as a reaction to being called a name, the group might disapprove. However, if a small child hits a larger child because he has been called a name, his behavior may be approved. If the norm is to fight in response to name calling, it is possible for any child of any size to be censured if he does not fight after being called a name.

The degree of force varies with norms. The strength of approval or disapproval elicited by appropriate or inappropriate behavior varies in the degree or amount of intensity exhibited by members of the group. A child may receive a great amount of approval for misbehaving and interrupting work procedures if this behavior serves the purpose of the group. On one hand, a child who disrupts the class may be punished severely or even ostracized for a period from the group. On the other hand, at times transgression from a norm may evoke only slight expressions of disapproval. Some evidence suggests that conditions in the class are threatening to individuals unless the group exhibits the same strong feelings of approval as they do of disapproval. It seems reasonable that unless children also accord approval and reward for behavior considered appropriate in the same ratio as they distribute disapproval and punishment for behavior regarded as inappropriate, classroom conditions will be essentially unpleasant for individuals with poor social perception.

Norms also have a qualitative dimension. Some behavior is considered better than other. A class group norm may govern whether it is correct to slow down work procedures by asking unnecessary questions. A norm may exist which approves of time-wasting activities even though the class may suffer reprisals because of such behavior. On the other hand, a child's behavior may be disapproved because he talks out in class at an appropriate time. This qualitative dimension of norm behavior may specify what is acceptable or

unacceptable behavior for boys as compared with that which is approved or not approved for girls. In this sense the norm acts as a qualifier. The qualitative aspect of norms specifies the best or ideal behavior for certain situations and for certain individuals, and it also acts to differentiate between behavior considered as poor, better, or best.

When a class group actually does develop a set of standards for conduct, these standards will have characteristics very similar to norms, and most children eagerly and willingly conform to group norms. Of course, it is clear that groups often develop standards that are *inconsistent with school objectives*. However, when teachers can assist groups to develop appropriate standards for behaving, the group can and does exert powerful forces on members to adhere to such standards.

Groups strongly influence the behavior of individuals because the urge to conform to group norms pervades most classroom life. Some norms developed by class organizations are developed for the sole purpose of making conditions more satisfying for members. They frequently serve to protect individuals from teachers' disciplinary practices because when a number of people act together it is often difficult to single out one for punishment. Also, it is not easy to find effective ways of disciplining a number of individuals because their combined strength can often successfully resist teachers' control practices.

The term norm and the idea of group norms are essential to an understanding of group behavior in the classroom. Discovering the current norms of the class group is a necessary step in guiding a group toward desirable patterns of behavior. Discovering group norms is not an easy task, for although they may refer to such specifics as how to dress, how to treat children who are either older or younger, and how to relate to the teacher, they may also operate when the referent is *ambiguous and not easily discerned*. Norms of the group may directly influence the learning performance of the members of the class. If the group holds, for example, that everyone should do the assigned work, this expectation will act as a force on the individual pupils to do the work. A group norm may also exert pressure on individuals to lower their output, for pupil learning is directly influenced by the class group, its norms, and the degree of power which it exerts.

A difficult aspect of norms and norm behavior is that having to do with origin of the norms. Children in the elementary school bring some expectations from their out-of-school lives and from their previous classroom experiences. The home, neighborhood, church, and play groups contribute to the norms which develop in the classroom. Discrepancies between norms of the several groups of which the child is a member may lead to conflict during the period



in which the class is attempting to develop its own standards and ways of behaving. Sometimes the transferred normative behavior from the previous classroom is unacceptable to the current teacher. There are times when the class group norms stimulate defiance and uncooperative behavior which forces the teacher to deal with the group reaction.

Class group norms have both good and bad effects with respect to the behavior of children in the class and their attitudes toward learning. The norms of the group reveal what is wanted or expected in the way of individual response; therefore, they provide a certain amount of regularity or predictability into member behavior. They are functionally valuable to social relationships for they create an orderliness in interaction that is very necessary for the security of members. However, class group norms may present difficulties and create conflicts when the norms of the group and the norms of the teacher are not in correspondence. The daily work program may suffer frequent interruptions if the demands of the majority of the members are too great for some children in the class. The teacher then has the problem of trying to help a number of individuals whose morale and efficiency are lowered because they are not able to conform and are either under constant pressure from the group or are rejected altogether.

The study of norms leads to the realization that the class group has the power and the potential to develop regularized and desirable behavior patterns which can greatly increase the effectiveness and productivity of the individuals in the group. Highly effective uses can be made of group power, such as increasing output and learning, and even promoting diversity and individual independence. In order to effectively direct group power toward promoting individual learning, teachers need skill in developing behavioral guidelines or standards that act as norms for the group.

## TRADITIONAL ENGINEERED STANDARDS

It has been mentioned previously that one of the difficulties in having children participate in setting their own behavior standards is that in almost all cases the desired behavior already is either implicitly or explicitly defined. The children cannot decide what the behavioral standards of conduct should be. This has been determined by long established school norms and by the policies and rules operating in specific schools. Therefore, any method which involves class decisions to determine what the standards of behavioral conduct *should be* is employing a manipulative device

which many children recognize and which most resist because it violates their inherent feelings of worth as individuals. In many instances they play the game with the teacher, but the standards they parrot back to the teacher are not honored because either consciously or unconsciously it is recognized by each child that other members of the group are not committed to the standards because they are the teacher's standards and not their own.

Traditional teaching procedures advocated for use in developing classroom behavioral standards often do not correspond with stated educational beliefs about the worth and dignity of individuals and "good" teacher-group interaction processes. The actual behavior of teachers during standard-making discussions which follow prescribed educational practice often do not jibe with educational values about effective teacher action. A gap often exists between stated educational value theory and prescribed classroom-management practices, particularly in this area of setting standards. The methods often employed at the present time act to create a barrier to openness and trust and tends to create a collective resistance to the acceptance of the very behavioral standards that the class appears to suggest as their own rules for acting and behaving. The cause of the resistance comes about because the individuals in the class perceive the methods employed by teachers as a hidden means for coercing them into accepting school and teacher-made rules for behaving. The students feel (even though they usually are unable to verbalize these emotions), that their suggestions are not honestly sought or valued. Correctly or incorrectly, they perceive the process as one of eliciting stereotyped responses which the teacher approves. Collectively, then, the individuals in the class react defensively. They do not accept the standards. Individuals who volunteer responses in the process of formulating standards learn to limit their statements to those ideas they perceive the teachers to be seeking. Even young children recognize that the individuals who suggest standards for behavior are merely parroting back right answers. When teachers say, for example, "What is the best way to come into the room?" the usual answer is "Quietly," or "No talking." This response is perceived as the right answer to the teacher's question and not an expression of belief that children should come into the room quietly. Methods presently advocated and followed by teachers in establishing standards are not only ineffective but they severely restrict commitment to standards by members of the classroom system. The method for establishing standards itself creates barriers to their acceptance. Traditional educational methods for establishing classroom standards in too many cases achieve only limited success. This lack of success stems from an incomplete conceptual framework regarding the nature of collective behaviors and reactions in the classroom system. Members of the classroom

organization need agreed upon guidelines which not only serve to regulate their behavior, but which also provide a commonality of expectations. Standards, or norms of belief, expectation, and purpose, assist the group in achieving structural integrity. When developed through group procedures, and when they lead to appropriate group actions, they assist with affiliative interaction and help each individual member to secure a sense of personal identity with his class group. The same affects are achieved when groups, without teacher guidance, develop norms which lead to inappropriate behaviors. Although undesirable norms often serve to make very unpleasant working conditions more bearable, the development of standards and guidelines for behavior which are consistent with the objectives of education create much more satisfaction, not only for children, but for the teachers as well.

Some class groups do not possess a very strong degree of unity. The majority of class groups, however, either are quite cohesive or possess considerable solidarity. When classes have unity, they develop norms. Children begin to think and act alike as a result of constant association. The norms and goals of the group become as important to each individual's feeling of achievement and accomplishment as his own individual needs. Once a classroom group has become truly integrated, the individual members come to identify themselves with its successes and failures. Although a group achieves some sense of accomplishment if it can successfully resist teachers' control efforts, feelings of achievement and success are greatly intensified by mutual cooperation and when the group constantly receives favorable evaluations for their cooperation. It cannot be stressed too vigorously that group success and achievement are most often as important, if not more important, to each individual than are his own needs for success and achievement.

The processes outlined in the following section stresses how certain standards of school conduct and classroom behavioral guidelines can be met or established by class groups. Emphasis is on a plan of action that will increase the rationality of the activity and thus meet behavioral objectives. The planning procedures have a binding power because they encourage participation and hence tend to increase acceptance.

## PRACTICES AND PROCEDURES

If children must be reminded daily to adhere to standards of conduct, and if they react to school rules or policies with indolence, passivity, or an unwillingness to accept responsibility, it may reflect a condition where the teachers' and schools' control systems are depriving them of certain important needs. Teachers must change

their systems of control if they are to encourage the children to work constructively and well. The solution to improving poor adherence to standards is not to try to change the children individually, but to change the method of establishing controls to create a situation in which children through participative action, can meet their needs and at the same time have some share in deciding their own conduct. The process, in fact, assists the group in developing norms that regulate conduct.

One important management function then is to assist the group in establishing guidelines for appropriate behavior for certain specific situations in the classroom. Another management task is to help groups develop plans of action to meet rules and policies relating to conduct in the school building and on the playgrounds. In both cases the group must make decisions as to what they will do in certain situations and agree upon certain plans of action. When class members arrive at a decision, the class group is committed to a course of action.

The steps involved in the management processes are concerned with ways of reaching certain behavioral objectives rather than with deciding what the objectives should be. Teachers must concentrate on what it is that they desire to accomplish. It is not setting behavioral standards. It is gaining adherence to implicit and explicit standards of conduct appropriate and necessary for the effective operation of the formally organized group. Appropriate conduct means that each individual is allowed the maximum amount of personal freedom possible without infringing on the rights of others. Also, appropriate behavior involves conduct which enables all members of the class to reach educational goals.

Effective class participation in deciding how to reach behavioral goals results from a systematic process with clearly defined elements. These elements, which the teacher handles in a sequence of steps, are designed to achieve an action commitment that is as close as possible to the capacities of the children who will carry it out. The sequence of steps involved in this group-decision participation process include

1. A statement of the policy and/or desired conduct for a specific situation under consideration.
2. A clarification of the situation which includes a clear exposition of factors involved.
3. A request for some plan of action which will enable the members of the class to meet the required conduct.
4. A statement and exploration of boundary conditions (what cannot be done and what is undesirable).
5. An examination of all suggestions on how to meet the conditions in the situation.

6. An action commitment on the part of class members who must carry out the plan.
7. A daily progress examination which determines the effectiveness of the plan and which compares the plan against the actual course of events.

Every teacher approaches a management task with certain conscious or unconscious assumptions. These assumptions pertain to

1. The nature of the class as a whole (whether the class is viewed as a good class, or is difficult, and so forth).
2. The nature of the management task (whether the situation is viewed as a discipline problem or as a condition requiring facilitative action).
3. The reasons for the trouble in the group (there are one or more difficult individuals or group energy is misdirected).
4. The management practices which will lead to an amelioration of the situation (actions believed appropriate will depend upon how the situation is perceived).

For example, teachers frequently report that children do not conduct themselves in an appropriate manner when preparing for and proceeding to the cafeteria. The problem is stated in various ways, each one of which gives some indication of how various teachers perceive the situation. One teacher states:

There is always a good deal of commotion when we try to get ready for the cafeteria. If we are late, another class must either wait for us or go ahead, which disrupts the whole proceeding. Because we can't seem to get ready without confusion, there is a good deal of unnecessary shoving and pushing in the line. We have set standards but this has not helped.

Another teacher describes the same situation in quite another way:

It is the practice of our school for each room to leave for the cafeteria at a certain time. Since rooms go at various intervals, it speeds up the lunch process and provides space for all to eat during a period extending from 11:30-1:00. In the class I have this year, however, there are always some children who do not get ready on time and who keep us all waiting. These few cause the whole class to rush to the cafeteria at the last moment to meet our time schedule. It is usually the same individuals who cause the problem. They have been punished but every day the result is the same—a cross teacher and a cross class at lunch time

just because a few individuals won't meet their responsibilities.

A third teacher describes a similar situation in the following manner:

This class has been noted for its poor conduct on the playground, in the auditorium, and in the cafeteria. Each day at lunch time it is the same old struggle to get them ready and in line and to the cafeteria with a minimum of disorder and confusion. Today it was a game of everyone moving behind the person in front with the remark, "you can be first." By the time that game was stopped and some order restored, we were ten minutes late. It seems to be a few individuals who think up these tactics but the whole class goes along and joins in at every opportunity.

The management task is the same in all three incidents. The immediate objective is to arrive at the cafeteria on time and in an orderly manner. The major aim is to redirect group energy so that the class members can satisfactorily meet the requirements of the situation. Or, the task may be stated as one of group facilitation to enable the class system to change its ways of functioning in order to cope more effectively with the environmental conditions. The class system needs help in mobilizing its resources to correct its own operations.

The processes maximize constructive rather than destructive tendencies. To achieve this the initial management action is to present the situation to the class as a statement of fact. This means that the teacher does not exhibit any positive or negative feelings in his statements, tone of voice, or mannerisms. In other words, the teacher states that it is the obligation of the class to arrive at the cafeteria at a certain time. A short, factual description of the events that hinder this operation should be given. With no reference to the individuals who are the obstructing influences. After objectively stating the situation the teacher can proceed to the next step, which is to ask the class to suggest a plan of action to facilitate the process of preparing for and proceeding to the cafeteria. Before suggestions are made, the boundary conditions should be clarified. Predictable suggestions for policing action and severe punishment of offenders should be vetoed before the children think to make them. Children may suggest rather severe punishments as a solution to a problem. However, children have no real commitment to solve problems in this way because it only increases the tensions and unpleasantness of the situation. Another boundary condition is that the class must work within the established school policies—whatever these may be. The teacher must convince the class that

*the method of operating is faulty* and that a new method is needed. (No blame is placed upon the inability of some or all of the children to accomplish this task.) The method of proceeding is at fault—not the children. To involve the class members, the first consideration might be the length of time needed to prepare for leaving for the cafeteria. The teacher must be prepared to accept all plans for action but must direct them toward deciding the methods and direction of movement and where the lines are to form (if lines are considered appropriate.) When necessary the teacher may restate suggestions which are not clear by asking, "Do you mean . . . ?" All suggestions should be indicated by a word or phrase written on the board because writing them in their entirety slows the process and invites trouble from impatient members. The last steps in the planning stage are to get a decision from the group as to what plan they wish to try, and then obtain a commitment from members that they will put the plan to the test.

When children plan their own actions, individuals in the class perceive that others believe a change in ways of acting and behaving is needed. The plan of action developed by the class is the focus of the management task, but an underlying objective is to redirect inappropriate behavior into more constructive channels.

The last step in the process tests the validity and effectiveness of the decisions made by the group against the actual course of events. If confusion still occurs in some areas of operation, the plan becomes the focus of attention—not the individuals who do not operate according to expectancies. Actually, it is conditions in the environment which cause normal individuals to react inappropriately rather than something that is wrong with them personally.

Teachers who are successful in the management dimension of teaching have discovered (whether they are aware of it or not) that they can obtain better results by giving their classroom groups an opportunity to participate in making some decisions about their working environment. In some cases they may consult with their groups, and in other cases they help their group to implement decisions by themselves.

When children are given actual opportunities to participate, everybody gains. The students have the satisfaction of exercising greater control over their classroom environment, and they gain the feeling of success from having accomplished something by themselves. Teachers gain in that there is less need for them to exercise authority and to constantly remind their groups how they are to behave in particular situations. Almost all children will follow standards for behavior that they have actually established. Also, children who are given freedom to regulate themselves are far more capable of making sensible decisions when emergencies arise (on the playground, for example) and the teacher is not present to

handle problems. As a consequence, much less time is spent settling such problems after the children return to the room and the class can concentrate on learning. Moreover, when class groups learn to cooperate and follow their own behavioral guidelines, the room climate is more serene.

When children are given the necessary freedom and assistance in planning how they will conduct themselves, they usually do an impressive job. The mere fact that class groups are given the power (appropriate to their developmental level) to decide how they will meet school rules and regulations increases the likelihood that they will accept rules, even those that they might otherwise reject. In other words, a class group's acceptance of school norms of conduct depends not only upon *what* is expected and demanded, but more upon *how* such demands are made.

Permitting the group to participate in planning how to meet school rules and policies results in genuine advantages for both teachers and children. Children take more responsibility for minor problems and do not constantly run to the teacher with complaints. Sometimes they set goals for behavioral conduct at higher levels than teachers do. In addition, the children gain many satisfactions from participation—interaction, accomplishment, leadership, letting off steam, and so forth. Furthermore, each child's sense of personal worth is enhanced by the mere fact that the teacher asks the group to assume responsibility for planning and meeting the behavioral goals of the school.

## METHODS OF ESTABLISHING STANDARDS OF WORK CONDUCT

One of the basic problems of classroom management is how to facilitate working procedures in the classroom. In classroom groups that range from twenty to thirty-five pupils, or more, this is not an easy task, particularly if a number of the children derive only slight personal satisfaction from working on and completing study assignments. Children must work together, adhere to standards, obey instructions, and follow rules and policies, some of which they had no voice in making. The increased size of many classes and schools today reduces the opportunity for pupil participation and increases the necessity for stricter controls. How can teachers develop work standards and create a work situation in which children can satisfy some individual needs and at the same time work toward the learning objectives established for their particular class groups?

This section considers methods for establishing standards of conduct for work and study. The focus is upon practices which establish



organizational controls, yet, at the same time, provide satisfaction for individuals in the classroom group.

The traditional form of establishing work controls in classrooms (and the one that teachers are trained to perform) emphasizes authority. Using the results of tests, for example, teachers divide the class into reading groups, and at reading time children move to assigned positions. At these times they are told what to do, how to do it, and often they are told how much time is allotted for completing the task. In their crudest form, the control methods used consist of implied threats of low grades or some sort of punishment if children do not work according to instructions. The assumption behind this approach, of course, is that some children will not work except when they are made to. The fact that children want much more than just good grades—they want other work satisfactions—is ignored. Moreover, at times teachers assume that many children do not like to work, that they try to get away with doing as little as they can, and therefore they must be closely supervised. Teachers must tell each child not only what he is to do each minute of the school day, but *how* he is to do it. Some teachers spell out every rule and give the children the narrowest possible range of discretion. Many times children are kept busy just to keep them out of trouble.

A hundred years ago such methods worked. All the children of all the people did not attend school. Those who did were interested in school achievement or they soon dropped out of school. Also, children were taught both at home and at school to show strict obedience to teachers and elders, and so had little difficulty in adjusting to strict controls in the school. Recent years have brought about a revolution in the way children are reared—they now have more freedom and can express themselves more freely in the home. In many cases, the home is a place where very few controls are imposed upon children because the parents are too busy supporting the family or only one parent is present. As a consequence, many children today find it very hard to accept the strong controls often employed in classrooms.

Most work controls are necessary, of course. However, when children are subjected to constant pressure day after day, frustration arises. It is proposed that the frustration of many individuals in the classroom today is not so much because of their inability to achieve, but because of the pressures imposed upon them by having to work according to rules and regulations every minute of the day. It is very difficult for individuals to learn and work creatively when subject to strong control pressures hour after hour.

Some classroom groups, when subjected to too much pressure, fight back. Together members of the group engage in behavior that succeeds in creating conditions where only a minimum of work

is possible. A great deal of satisfaction is obtained by thwarting teachers' control efforts. Naturally, teachers react by deciding that firmer controls are needed. Sometimes teachers, in frustration, strike back irrationally. They may impose more and needless restrictions on the group as a whole. Or, they may take action against children they believe are ringleaders. Thus a vicious cycle is set in motion. This cycle involves resistance by children followed by stricter controls imposed by teachers. The collective actions of a class group are protective and are practiced by all class groups at some time or other. This alliance is highly effective, although the defensive tactic is not talked about or even recognized by children. They have no conscious recognition of what they do, nor could they explain why they do it.

Methods courses emphasize a high degree of organization and control in the area of instruction. Although it is recognized that much of what is taught in teacher-training courses is necessary and appropriate, many suggested practices are inappropriate as control methods. The most serious trouble caused by a high degree of organization and control is that it ignores a basic factor in human behavior. When people are too regimented they usually become frustrated. When children in class groups become frustrated they react and reduce the effectiveness of instructional methods; nor can the main task of teachers, helping each child achieve according to his abilities and grade level, be carried out effectively. Often children's behavior seems quite irrational because teachers cannot understand it from the explanations provided in their educational training. *For example, if frustration leads to scapegoating, that is, if children, in order to vent aggressive feelings, pick on others in the group, the explanation given is in terms of sociometrics. It is the child who is unacceptable and who is not liked by the group. However, teachers find that if such a child moves away, the behavior persists; the class selects a new victim who was previously a fringe member but who was not totally rejected. When this occurs, the sociometric explanation for the behavior becomes invalid.*

The collective reaction of a group of children to frustration caused by severe controls in the work situation can have a devastating effect on the total classroom environment. It can disrupt group unity and cooperation by eventually turning individuals against one another. It can lead to mistrust and suspicion. It may result in unexplained resistance to agreed-upon classroom standards of conduct or to a state of irritability in which children snarl at one another. In most cases, the basic objective of education—learning—suffers greatly.

There are times when teachers, because of the immediacy of the situation, must use either strong directives or implicit or explicit threats. Teachers are responsible for the health, safety, and well-

being of the children in their charge. If the behavior of some children threatens the well-being of others; highly forceful control practices should be put into effect. But teachers who rely solely on pressure tactics to control the instructional situation are very likely to develop a group of students who at best are apathetic and indifferent and at worst are openly rebellious.

Highly directive practices usually are accompanied by a type of consideration and benevolence that affects teachers' mannerisms and conduct. For example, teachers usually do not say, "Go to your seats. Sit up straight. Take out your books. Read page 69 for the answer to this question. Do your own work and no talking." Emphasis on a benevolent and kindly manner causes them to issue such directives in a manner and tone of voice which softens the orders. The mannerisms employed, including voice tone, can engender resentment. Children at any age do not like anything that makes them feel infantile. Certain ways of talking have this affect although teachers are trying merely to avoid sounding dictatorial. They wish results, yet in a kindly way. The way the directives are given, even by some teachers who have the best of intentions, can lower children's feelings of self-importance. When orders are given, "I like it when each person is doing his own work without talking," the statement may be felt as a slight to self-esteem. If a teacher has a pleasant manner and a positive way of speaking he, in return, expects the children to be docile and compliant. Although a benevolent manner of issuing orders is intended to be positive in approach, it does carry with it a negative threat. It can be that "I like this way of acting" is heard as "If you don't do it this way I won't like it!" Although no one in education rejects the idea that children should be treated with kindness, it cannot be assumed that an accepting, positive approach to issuing directives and orders will create a satisfying work situation or cause children to react as the teacher desires.

Having children decide *how* the job is to be done serves two purposes: it establishes a way of working and carrying out lesson assignments and provides opportunities to satisfy individual needs. Although this approach may not be feasible in all cases, it does provide a means for reducing the number of controls placed on children throughout the total school day. To a large extent a unified cooperative group of individuals will work together and accept the orders of the teacher in order to achieve daily objectives. Having children participate in deciding how the job is to be accomplished provides one instance in which children can have some autonomy. This practice often leads to spontaneous cooperation and enthusiasm to do the work. An example in the area of spelling: the task to be accomplished is set by the teacher (and by the course of study or the curriculum framework). How much is to be accomplished by

each individual is determined by the teacher. How the study session is organized, how children study the words, even where they sit, perhaps, can be decided by the children. The important factor is to reach the educational outcomes.

Intrinsic work satisfaction can be increased if children design the way they are to work. Of course, there are certain boundary conditions that must be met. The children cannot decide that they will work in a place out of the reach of teacher supervision, for example. Once given such boundary conditions, however, children can decide how they will accomplish the task, and in so doing will achieve many satisfactions. Usually teachers find that when members of the group participate in decisions regarding how they will work, they become so involved in reaching the learning objectives that achievement rises. Those who have trouble learning as quickly as others share in the feeling of accomplishment gained from planning a workable method of study, and this improves their productivity as well as their achievement. Certainly this practice produces more than a minimum amount of study and learning on the part of the children.

## BUILDING COOPERATION AND TRUST

The use of group decision methods to establish initial guidelines for conduct engages children in freer communication about ways of conducting themselves in the room and provides conditions under which understanding and cooperation can grow. The aim is not only to develop guidelines for ways of behaving, but also to allow for interaction and communication so that children can gain a realistic picture of the classroom group situation, develop understanding to reduce conflicts between individuals, and learn to conduct themselves in ways conducive to a good learning situation.

Beginning teachers always ask, "How do I establish standards when school opens and so avoid behavior problems?" Perhaps the single most effective technique is not to anticipate that the children will fail to behave appropriately; when, or if, such behavior does occur, handle it on a one-to-one basis. Nothing arouses resistance more quickly than letting a class group know that it is expected to misbehave and establish rules of conduct before they are needed. Of course, children require some direction in new situations. In most cases, teachers can wait until a problem arises before they take action. For example, if on the first day the group experiences a good deal of difficulty preparing to leave the room, the teacher can give some directions and tell the children that a problem has

arisen and that when they return to the room they will work together on developing a procedure.

In deciding on the best procedures to follow in preparing to leave the room and in leaving the room, teachers should not ask questions such as "Now, how should we leave the room?" Instead, the teacher can describe the specific problem situation. Basic facts are reported to the group in such a way that the problem is understood to be one that involves a number of people who must clean off their desks and prepare to leave the room in an orderly way. The solution involves ways of moving. The problem is presented in terms of logistics, not in terms of talking or pushing. If time is considered, the problem of talking or fooling around usually takes care of itself.

Many times present methods attempt to develop standards to cover a multitude of behavior in and out of the classroom. Attempting to set up standards or policies to cover all possible contingencies simply is not feasible. Even if children are involved, the result is a list that has little meaning, and the process itself has little impact on the class group. In some cases the teacher may ask the class if they need to work out some guidelines to govern their behavior, or if they believe they can manage without such guidelines. Many times the class members will say such a guideline is not needed and proceed to prove they were correct.

In the training incident which follows the situation is stated clearly and several facts are given. What does a teacher do in these conditions? How can human needs be met and organizational requirements fulfilled?

The problem becomes more difficult if, as the information suggests, the children expect teachers to be strong rule enforcers. If children do hold such a stereotype of teachers, any radical departure from the expected norm of teacher behavior will be rejected by the class members. However, many times a firm statement by the teacher to the effect that actions taken by him will be strict but fair, will satisfy the stereotype and he can proceed to meet both the human and organizational needs of the situation.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 8

The school where I will begin teaching is located in a factory district. Experienced teachers who have been teaching there for several years tell me that I must set the standards and hold the youngsters to them or they will not respect me. From what I am told, it is a be tough policy. The school has several rules that teachers are expected to enforce. One is that when a bell signals the time for recess to

end, every child must freeze, proceed at a reasonably fast pace to the building entrance, and then follow the teacher to the room with no loitering. One difficulty, as I see it, is that the teacher is needed at both ends of the line. Another problem is, how can a teacher make children follow the rules if they decide they do not wish to do so? Further, how can this particular rule be enforced since no person can be several places at once?

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. In this situation the teacher is concerned with getting the children to follow a school rule. The teacher has asked a number of questions which the children may be able to answer.

2. How can the teacher use a group decision process to gain adherence to a school policy?

### Action Steps

1. In this training exercise all class members participate in a training dramatization. The class divides into groups of ten to twelve members. A teacher is recruited for each group. The rest play the parts of children in class groups.

2. From ten to fifteen minutes is taken by each group to help the teacher formulate the initial statements needed to engage the class in the group decision process.

3. The teachers then switches training groups, as it will be difficult for members who have helped the teacher plan the approach to play their parts.

4. The training groups then demonstrate how a group decision might proceed with a class group at the beginning of the school term. If time permits, they play the scene through until a decision is reached.

### Concluding Activities

1. Following the demonstrations, the class members of each group state how they felt toward statements and questions made by the teachers. They state how they felt toward other group members.

2. From data given, group members generalize as to whether the actions of the group in the decision process would tend to influence members to adhere to the school policy when they enter the building.

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF GROUP SPIRIT AND UNIT PRIDE

Team spirit and unit pride begin to develop as children create their own guidelines for conduct and solve problems relating to classroom behavior. The interaction process that group members engage in when they determine behavioral guidelines usually succeeds in improving over-all group functioning and integration. A consequence of the process itself is increased liking for the group and increased group attractiveness. Once group spirit and pride is aroused, the group will exercise informal social controls upon members who otherwise might not live up to the guidelines established by the group.

Once guidelines have been established, teachers should constantly make favorable appraisals of group accomplishment not only to the group, but also to school personnel who visit the room. Visitors' attention can be drawn to how well the group is doing. Pride in group accomplishment is enhanced more by praise made to outsiders than it is by praise made to the group itself.

Class groups that have not previously been given opportunities to make decisions regarding the guidelines they followed within the classroom initially might feel mistrustful and skeptical. Patient effort by teachers who follow through on facilitative practices will turn skepticism and mistrust into constructive action directed toward improving classroom behavior. For example, a teacher was trying to involve a somewhat hostile group in deciding how they would shift from one lesson to another. A boy called out from the back of the room, "Say teacher, how long is this going to last?" The teacher was puzzled and asked for clarification. The student responded with, "Well, things are pretty good right now but that's the way teachers are. They are nice at first, then pow! They lower the boom!"

Once class groups develop confidence and enthusiasm, and once they begin to feel pride in their ability to make successful decisions, fringe members generally join in the group effort—but only if the over-all classroom climate supports their new behavior. The groups are not allowed to fail. If a decision is made that does not work in actual practice, the plan needs revising—blame should not be placed on individuals because they did not accomplish their behavioral objectives. Conditions and situations cause children to act in one way rather than in another. Failure to reach a behavioral objective is not a result of an inherent lack in individuals. It is a result, rather, of a faulty plan of action which needs revision or improvement.

It must be recognized that classroom groups, being centers of

influence, can satisfy important human needs. Being a part of a classroom group has an effect on the attitudes and behavior of individual children; it can influence their modes of thinking, feeling, and acting. For these reasons, the influence of the group as a whole upon what occurs in the classroom learning situation cannot be minimized.

## INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 9

*This situation has its roots in the insecurity of the class as individuals; this is my opinion as of this time. There seems to be much tattling over insignificant things, such as, "Someone has my pencil," or, "He hit me!" and so forth. It seems that this is more prevalent with the boys than with the girls. Because pencils always seem to disappear by the end of the day, I asked some of the students if they could bring some old pencils from home. The problem was that some brought new ones instead of used ones, and then they wanted their own pencils back at the end of the day.*

*Another situation in this class concerns a particular child. Bill is a boy who does not really belong to any group. He often brings something up which is totally unrelated to the subject at hand, or he may ask a question that shows his total misunderstanding of an assignment. The class reaction is usually one of ridicule and scorn. He then blushes and goes into a shell until the next time he asks a silly question or makes a remark that seems to be on a totally different subject. Then the class proceeds to put him in his place again with some pointed remarks. The class seems to get some enjoyment out of making him look ridiculous.*

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. The class described in the incident lacks group spirit and pride. Can attractiveness be increased by involving the group in solving some of their own problems?

2. The training groups should analyze the situation. Decide what facilitative acts the teacher should perform. Decide on a problem that must be solved and on one which allows the group considerable leeway in planning what is to be done. The situation relating to pencils may provide a problem for group decision.



### Action Steps

1. The instructor will divide the class into small-training groups of approximately five persons.
2. The various training groups work as units and present one report in answer to the training problems.
3. Each group will select a leader to coordinate group activities and prepare the presentation of the report. The reports should be detailed and specific in stating what the teacher will say and do to involve the group in a decision-making activity.

### Concluding Activities

1. After hearing the reports, the members should decide which plans are most likely to stimulate a feeling of group spirit and pride.
2. The large group will also decide if the plans call for solutions to be worked out by the group, or if they are too teacher-dominated.

### Comments

This class is not well integrated. Some teachers may be concerned over the reaction of the group to Bill—and they should be. Involving the group in decision making and taking other means to increase group spirit possibly may solve the problem of the group's reaction to Bill. The usual approach to correct this type of problem is to work with the child who is the victim of the group's displaced hostility. However, the problem does not lie with the child but in the group, and it is here that changes are needed.

## GUIDING CLASS DISCUSSIONS

The simulation incident reported in this section describes a unified class group that interacts freely. A problem arises when the class group as a whole engages in discussion. It is difficult for a large number of children to try to carry on a discussion for this reason: if there is total involvement all persons cannot speak when they desire to do so because of the number in the group. It requires a highly skilled discussion leader to ensure that the total group discussion is carried on to everyone's satisfaction. It seems evident that the teacher in this case was skilled in developing a unified group but lacked skill in guiding group discussions. It appears that a lack of teacher skill rather than some group difficulty created the behavior problem described.

It is the teacher's job to regulate the discussion while maintaining a high level of participation. Regulating the flow of talk from one individual to another is the teacher's responsibility; as the discussion leader; he should encourage spontaneous interaction between individuals rather than arbitrary contributions. Having hands waving in the air as the teacher decides who is to talk is to be avoided. Children have demonstrated over and over that they can engage in discussion without having the teacher decide who can speak and who cannot. It will be his task to decide in what order the individuals may speak when several respond at the same time. At these moments teachers should quickly indicate the order of the contributions.

Of course children do not automatically learn how to discuss by engaging in discussion. Before any real discussion is attempted, guidelines should be developed by the class, and decisions reached as to how the discussion will proceed.

At times the teacher may intercede if he feels that someone who is timid in speaking out has a valuable contribution to make. Also, teachers may need to ask for other opinions if only one side of the question is being stated. The skilled teacher can increase the quality of the discussion by helping the quiet and less academically able children to be heard. Often the children who are not the highest achievers in school subject areas are very good at solving practical problems of group functioning.

Also, managing the discussion so that the time coincides with the action is part of the teacher's task. A group decision meeting should not be held in a period that might not allow time to complete the discussion. If there is not time to make a decision before the lunch period, for example, then it may be necessary to repeat the whole discussion at another session. When this happens, time is wasted unnecessarily.

The teacher guides the group discussion largely through questions that he asks; thus he must be skilled in developing and phrasing effective questions. Usually these questions are not from the teacher to the pupil. The teacher-to-pupil question may be used to clarify a statement made by an individual and, occasionally, as mentioned before, to provide the opportunity for quiet members to speak. Otherwise, questions are directed to the group as a whole for the purpose of making the discussion more conducive to general participation. When a teacher engages groups in discussion for the first time, his questions may be followed by a short period of silence while members assess whether they are supposed to respond honestly or to answer in terms of what the teacher desires. The teacher can either wait until someone answers, or he can restate the question in other words.

A discussion is often opened by statements which objectively de-

scribe the situation to be decided upon. Questions are employed later to gain general involvement. Of course, such questions must not be phrased in a way that can be answered by "yes" or "no," or no involvement will result. Such questions are used by teachers who may unconsciously be trying to dominate the decision. In group decision processes, the end point or the objectives have been defined. To this extent the teacher is directive, but the group must decide how to reach the objectives. Questions may be formulated from time to time to remind the group of these objectives and to prevent the group from wandering away from the task at hand. On the whole questions should be stimulating and should provoke discussion by their very nature. An example is, "What do you think of . . . ?" This type of question encourages the group to reply with ideas and suggestions rather than with a mere "yes" or "no."

Sometimes after a suggestion or statement has been made by a group member the teacher may ask, "What do you mean by . . . ?" Such a question helps to develop a more searching discussion of the task at hand.

In addition to stimulating interest and clarifying the discussion, questions may be employed by teachers for several reasons.

1. To guide thinking.
2. To uncover feelings.
3. To cause other questions to arise.
4. To focus attention on the end objectives.
5. To redirect the trend of the discussion.

The next incident indicates quite clearly that the group needs to decide and agree upon ways class group discussions should proceed. Evidently the members are involved, but as the process does not allow for general interaction the pupils talk among themselves. A group decision process would improve the situation, but if the teacher lacked skill in guiding the discussion, the improvement would be only minimal.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 10

My sixth grade class is a very friendly, congenial group. Other teachers have commented on how well they play together at recesses and P. E. times. In the classroom they work quite well together, i.e., when they can help each other or work in committees or on individual projects. Quite a lot of our class time is devoted to this type of work.

The only problem comes when we are working as a whole group; it takes longer all of the time for them to get

ready. During the discussion much interest is shown as they are very curious about most things, but they seem to talk always among themselves—usually on the topic, but it is *disruptive to the main discussion*. They are also tremendously spontaneous and talk out quite often. The problem stems from the fact that the discussion must be interrupted frequently to wait for attention so that we can go on.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### *Training Problem*

1. How can teachers improve their skills in guiding group discussions?
2. How can teachers learn to perform the functions needed for guiding discussion in the group decision process?

### *Action Steps*

1. The training group remains as a whole for this training exercise (unless it is larger than the ordinary classroom group).
2. The task for the group, and for the volunteer teachers who will take turns leading the group, is to reach decisions concerning improved group discussion procedures.
3. The first volunteer teacher to lead the discussion will involve the group in deciding how the introduction of such a discussion would begin if the meeting were being held with a classroom group.
4. Using the suggestions as a beginning point, a second volunteer will attempt to guide the participants in reaching a decision as to how the discussion should proceed in a large group.
5. Two or more observers should be appointed to note the statements and questions made by the teacher volunteers.

### *Concluding Activities*

1. The instructor should allow fifteen to twenty minutes for the group to analyze where increased skill is needed.
2. Reporters should present the statements and questions used by the discussion leaders and the refinements suggested.
3. If the training group has been having some difficulty in their discussions following the small-group training peri-

ods, the decision process can be directed toward solving a problem that really exists instead of the one described in the training incident.

## INITIATING CORRECTIVE ACTIONS

The establishment of guidelines or standards for behavior involves three steps:

1. Helping the group establish behavioral guidelines.
2. Assisting the group to check its conduct against the guidelines and revise its performance.
3. Supporting the group when a few members deviate from guidelines or plans.

If the guidelines and plans have actually been established by the class group, members of the classroom system will use some of their energy to correct those who deviate from the guidelines and plans.

In the two incidents that follow the teachers used force to control the situations. The teacher in incident A used threat and intimidation. In the second incident the teacher used personal influence, as well as a child leader, to maintain control. She expressed disapproval when the class president did not use the control methods she desired, and expressed approval when he did. The controls used were as authoritarian as the ones used by the first teacher. The only difference was that the first teacher used open and direct threat, whereas the second teacher disguised the threat by appearing to let the children control themselves and by using a disapproval-approval (like-dislike) method of influence. Quite possibly the second teacher's methods of control were the most damaging in the long run because when pressure increased and frustration became too great, the group, quite predictably, would turn to scapegoating.

If, in each case the teachers had attempted to establish behavioral guidelines with the class but found that some members deviated or that the plans of action were not firmly established, corrective actions would be needed. Group decision could be employed for correction of deviations. Teachers may correct by helping the groups draw their plans, by modifying the behavioral objectives, or by clarification.

Before undertaking corrective actions by use of group decision, several questions should be posed by teachers. Teachers should ask themselves:

1. What exactly is the problem? What is the nature of the situation with which I must deal?
2. What are the boundary conditions or limitations?
3. Toward what ends must the corrections be directed? What conditions must be satisfied to correct the situation?

Teachers should consider each of the questions separately so that their actions will be based on the highest level of conceptual understanding possible.

## Definition of the Problem

The large problem usually is how to gain the willing cooperation of children in making needed changes so that their feelings of personal dignity and worth are satisfied, and at the same time meet the demands of the school organization. Even small children have vague feelings that they are capable of exercising some degree of judgment and responsibility. They are left without any pride at all when they are told what is wrong with what they have been doing or that they have displeased the teacher. The problem, then, is not one of trying to gain stronger acceptance by having the children reset the standards. This practice possibly would lead to resistance. Those individuals who have self-doubts about their own judgments and who might willingly conform to pressures to obey the already established rules, have the strength to resist because of the support provided by the group. A sense of personal competence and self-worth is bolstered by collective resistance. The problem becomes then, a task of gaining collective—or group—cooperation in making corrections. Individuals must perceive that corrections are needed and that the corrections made by the class are supported by all the other members. The key to the situation is gaining not individual, but group acceptance and cooperation to make needed changes.

## The Specifications

The next major element in the conceptual process is to define clear specifications of what the group decision process has to accomplish. What are the objectives? What are the conditions the facilitating process has to satisfy? In science these are known as *boundary conditions*. To be effective any process must satisfy these boundary conditions. Consider, for example, the following suggestions made in education texts for gaining conformity to a rule that does not meet boundary conditions.

When children take part in enforcing the rules, they are likely to act more responsibly than if the rules are enforced

solely by the teacher. Suggested practices include the following.

1. Set up a committee to enforce the rules.
2. Have a system of citizens' arrest whereby any child can submit a slip saying someone has misbehaved in a way that bothers him. These slips can be submitted to the citizens' committee for appropriate action.

One boundary condition is that the solution to the problem must satisfy individual, group, and organizational needs. A procedure that does not satisfy boundary conditions is worse than no procedure at all. It would be better to leave the teacher as the sole enforcer of rules. If such practices as the one just outlined were put into operation, it would be all but impossible to salvage any unity or group solidarity that might have existed in the group, and it would be impossible to maintain morale.

The most common cause of the failure of present educational approaches to self-discipline and classroom control lies in not considering all the boundary conditions. A system of citizen arrest and a kangaroo court is the most dangerous of all possible courses of action. This solution to controlling and correcting behavior is incompatible with boundary conditions which specify that a high degree of unity and a pleasant atmosphere are necessary for the best achievement in a small face-to-face work group.

## The Objectives

Teachers must be able to state clearly the objectives they hope to reach by correcting existing behavior. They should not have any clearly defined plan as to how to reach the objectives, although they might have suggestions which will facilitate thinking. How to reach the objectives is the area in which classroom groups can make decisions.

To correct a group-decision plan, essentially the basic process from the group-decision process is used.

## INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 11

A. This is a sixth grade class with four fast fifth grade children. The class consists of twenty-two boys and fourteen girls. Their I.Q.'s range from 79-125. There are two children who are special training candidates, but because of limited facilities they remain in our class. The class makes it a point to help one of the children, but excludes the other because of his size. He is very large.

Although we have set standards, the class problem is as follows. There are five children in the class who are extroverts and continually compete for attention. During class periods we are interrupted with one or another falling out of his chair, yelling because someone didn't give him paper, accusing someone of stealing his pencil, and talking out without being recognized. In math class they will yell out the answer while other children have their hands raised. It doesn't take the class long to join in with the same pattern. In social studies they will dominate the discussion if it means repeating what has already been said.

Different methods of solving the problem were used.

1. The five children were retained after school (on different days), their problems were acknowledged, and goals were set for the next day. This plan didn't work.

2. A teacher-parent conference was held with the idea of getting home support to solve the problem. This didn't work either.

3. The statement was made that those who couldn't conduct themselves as sixth grade class members would be sent to the office.

This method worked temporarily and had to be used more than once for each of the five. Although it did work temporarily, it did not help others in the class. Some continued to act as before.

4. Finally, as a last resort the worst of the five boys was sent back to the fifth grade room with the idea that he *might not graduate because he wasn't mature enough*.

This took the wind out of the sails of the four others and within three days a different class appeared. The class decided they were mature enough to solve their own problems. They took it upon themselves to help the boy who was sent back to grade five. They said they would help him behave if he could be brought back.

We discussed the problem. The teacher hinted that the other four were headed for the same fate. The boys agreed that they had better shape up and behave. They were told to submit a plan for their own behavior and sign it showing that they were committed. It was read aloud to the class. At the end of each day we evaluated their plan. For a couple of days it was evident that some people in the class were not helping the boys. But when others found they were going to be placed in the same group with the five boys, they changed.

By the end of the week the whole class was doing better



and trying to help the five who were trying to stick to their plan of improved behavior. The room remained pretty quiet and there was no repetition of past disturbances.

B. The first time of the year when the teacher stepped out of her fifth grade classroom, she returned to find that the class president (with others' help) had recorded on the board the names of those who had talked out or in some way disturbed the class while she was out. The teacher did not wish to encourage this sort of thing, so she talked with the class about self-discipline and said that she felt the listing of names on the board would not be necessary again.

A few weeks later when the teacher was out of the room, the students followed the same pattern. (This evidently had been encouraged by their previous teacher.) The teacher talked with the class, reiterating much of what had been said previously. She explained that she did not want to see a list of those who had misbehaved because she wanted to find that the children had *all been very good!*

The third time the teacher was out of the class, she again was quite discouraged to see an exceedingly long list of names on the board. However, the class president quickly wrote above the list, "Those Who Were GOOD!" The teacher showed them that she was very happy with their more positive efforts.

After that the class was always unusually absorbed in a particular book or project when the teacher came back after being called out of the room.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. Both incidents A and B describe conditions where groups either have not set guidelines or standards have not been established previously. What can the teachers do to re-establish better conditions in the classroom?
2. The teacher in incident A finally tried to use a group-decision technique with the class after authoritarian control practices failed. How could this teacher improve conditions without placing the group under pressure that undoubtedly would lead to more severe problems in this group?
3. The teacher in incident B used personal influence to control the problem that arose in the group. Instead of talking to the class when it was found that the class president had written the names of class members on the board, what

might the teacher have done to correct the situation and yet give the group responsibility for making decisions?

### Action Steps

1. Divide the class into two sections. Section 1 takes incident A; Section 2, incident B. Training sections with more than ten members may be subdivided.

2. Following an analysis of teacher practices and classroom conditions, the training groups are to plan the facilitative actions that are needed to improve conditions and to solve the immediate problems.

### Concluding Activities

1. Each training group reports the solutions reached to the total group. Members of the class should be given the opportunity to ask questions about the proposed procedures.

2. After the reports are concluded the class as a whole should discuss them and improve and refine the reportorial processes.

## GAINING ADHERENCE TO SCHOOL RULES AND POLICIES

On the whole children accept the fact that they must study, complete assigned tasks, and fulfill the requirements to learn and achieve. Most young children eagerly look forward to school. After some time has passed, many find that life in the class and school environment is so overorganized and so overcontrolled that they are kept in a state of supervised conformity. Although life outside the school may have prepared some of the children for responsibility, shared or otherwise, class and school rules and regulations oftentimes treat them as though they are irresponsible and undisciplined. Even kind, benevolent teachers usually do not produce the intended results in terms of a good work climate.

Many school policies and rules presently in practice undoubtedly were in existence before the children started school. School rules of conduct are influenced by needs that arise and the kind of rules instituted are influenced by the values of those issuing the rules. Many rules and policies governing conduct in the school were formed for some reason. Some policies and practices seem to become ends in themselves; they continue on long after the original reason for the practice is removed. For example, a small school established the practice that the children would gather together in front of the entrance of the school to give a salute to the flag. As the school grew

in size, the children were instructed to line up in assigned areas by grades. After the flag salute they then marched in order to their rooms. Finally, the ceremony was assigned to the rooms, i.e., every morning each room conducted its own flag salute. However, lining up, waiting for stragglers, and marching to the rooms in double file remained the policy. No longer was there any reason for the children to stand five or ten minutes in line without talking or pushing—a practice which could make many active children feel like mere robots—but continue it did. New or transferring teachers may find that they and the children they teach are bound to conform to some such school practice that apparently has no reason for being. The teacher, being a new faculty member, may not feel free to express an opinion concerning the practice. It becomes his task, then, to facilitate the group and to help members behave acceptably in such situations, although he may feel resistant also. It becomes doubly difficult to perform this management function if the teacher himself feels that the practice is not reasonable.

Teachers' attitudes will be revealed to the group if they do not concentrate on their main objective, which, in such cases, should be a participative approach to discussing the problems arising from outworn school policies. For example, if the problem were one of waiting in line until everyone in the class was assembled, the class might decide how they could round up all the children so that some did not have to stand and wait for others. Of course, any participative approach can succeed only in the presence of mutual trust and confidence.

When teachers and children are open and trusting, ways of meeting school rules and policies can be approached in a spirit of joint inquiry and a consensus can be worked out for trial. Participation leads to more loyalty and flexibility. Relationships among children in the classroom shift from conflict to cooperation, and usually a sense of interdependence develops.

Of course, when certain prescriptive rules and policies seem to be perpetuated for no reason and to no effect, the teacher should question the practice and, if possible, involve the class group in instituting a new policy and submitting it for consideration to the administration or to the faculty. Even though the rules or practices are not changed, the children have been given an opportunity to voice an opinion.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 12

My class consists of disadvantaged youngsters. They are in grade three. As to the composition of the class, there are two or three more girls than boys. Most of the children are

in the average range as far as ability is concerned. Two children in the class are capable of expressing themselves very well. Two other children are not with us at all. Their not being with us is due to language problems and immaturity; however, these two youngsters are not behavioral problems and do not disturb the other members of the class. As a whole, the class is a very enthusiastic one.

*The school is located in a neighborhood that is considered to be lower socio-economic. The parents appear to be interested in their children, but most of them are reluctant to come to the school. Their reluctance is probably due to their language difficulties and to a lack of understanding about the school. Most of the parents were born in Mexico, or they have never been out of the immediate neighborhood.*

There have been no daily problems with this class; however, one reaction has occurred several times, and it has puzzled me. We take several trips during the year, always by bus. The last time we took a trip it was to the science center. Before the trip we discussed the standards to be followed while riding on the bus. (There are a number of school rules that must be followed.) One of these is that the class is to remain quiet while riding in the bus. Just so they wouldn't forget, we reviewed the standards again approximately twenty minutes before leaving. When the bus arrived, the bus driver also told everyone there was to be no talking on the bus for safety reasons. Before we left, the principal came out and he, too, reminded the children of the rule concerning quietness. As soon as we started on the trip, the class began talking as if it were an open discussion period. The class talked all the way to the science center, which is about ten miles away, and all the way back. They were told several times to be quiet and were threatened by telling them this was their last trip, but they did not stop talking to listen.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. How could the teacher conduct a meeting to gain adherence to the rule of "No talking" or "Be quiet" while on the bus?
2. Should the teacher anticipate that others might give the class orders and directions? Do you think this might have affected the children's behavior?

### Action Steps

1. In this training session all class members participate in reality practice, i.e., a teacher-volunteer in each training group guides the group through a group-decision process to gain adherence to the rule of no talking on the bus.

2. The class will divide into groups of seven to nine members. One person will volunteer or will be selected to take the part of the teacher. One person should act as a recorder and note the statements and questions posed by the teacher and the general group response. The rest of the group plays the parts of the third grade class members.

3. The teacher is given a few minutes to prepare an opening statement. Upon a signal from the instructor, each group engages in reality practice. The teacher guides the group through the complete process of decision making, or the group proceeds as far as possible until the instructor calls time.

### Concluding Activities

1. Upon re-assembling, each group recorder reports the progress made by his training group.

2. Members of each training group report whether they believe the members would be committed to the policy of "No talking."

3. In cases where it is felt the group would not be committed, the members of the training group analyze the process used and try to determine at what point the process failed.

## DEVELOPING SATISFACTORY NORMS

A group norm is a standard for behaving or a rule that is accepted, to some degree at least, by members of a group. Acceptance of a norm or adherence to a pattern of behavior by all the members of a sizable group is not always the case, but when a large number of individuals follow the same standard or norm for behaving it appears that there is acceptance by all members. Groups usually develop norms of belief and behavioral performance. These norms, when perceived to be related to group functioning and the achievement of satisfactory operational procedures, tend to induce conformity in conduct. Conformity to norms increases the predictability of member conduct and also facilitates group coordination and integration. Children are not conscious of norm development or of

the specific effects it induces. However, members of an organized classroom group do tend to conform to the norms of the group, and members tend also to exert pressures to induce such conformity.

It would seem that a period of time would be required for groups to develop norms. It appears, however, that some classroom groups develop a norm or standards for conduct on the first day the class meets and that this pattern of behavior persists. Perhaps this rapid development is caused by the fact that members in these particular class groups value group affiliation highly. A number of research studies show that the more a member values belonging to a group, the more likely he is to conform to perceived norms. It could be that the establishment of a standard of behavior that is contrary to generally accepted school norms reflects a need for the security and reassurance which a united group provides. The necessity, as the children see it, for establishing satisfactory conditions and their need for concerted rather than for individual action may account for the fact that some classroom groups develop a standard pattern of behaving on the first day. Such behavior may reduce the degree of ambiguity in the situation for members who are highly attracted to the group. Whatever the cause, some classroom groups do develop a norm—one that is contrary to the generally accepted standards of appropriate conduct—on the first day of school.

Norms represent expected best behavior and the group controls of member behavior. They provide a frame of reference that guides the interaction of individuals in an organized work group, and they regulate the behavior of group members.

Classroom groups often exhibit behavior that is difficult to trace back to a norm; that is, often the norm which is exerting pressure upon the children to conform is difficult to distinguish. For example, the training incident which follows describes a class group whose members have established a particular norm for guiding behavior in a specific situation. The resulting behavior is viewed by the teacher as a failure to conform to the standards established by the group itself. Actually the group's own standards or norms are operating, and the publicly stated standards are those desired or imposed by the teacher.

In the following incident, the teacher evidently wanted the children to establish a set of standards to concur with those already in existence. A procedure to enter the building and classrooms had been developed previously by teachers and administrators and custom dictated the appropriate methods. On the first day of school the children failed to adhere to established practice. As soon as he observed that standards were needed the teacher tried to establish rules for entering and leaving the room. His effort was unsuccessful and the children continued to follow the pattern they had established the first time they met.

Predictably the teacher attempted to have the children state standards similar to those in existence, at the same time telling them that they were to establish their own rules. Instead of gaining group cooperation, the process evoked group resistance; members of the class continued to behave as they did the first time they entered the room.

The management practice that is more likely to lead to cooperative behavior involves stating the conditions of existing practices, asking the children for their ideas on ways of meeting these conditions, agreeing on a trial plan of action, assessing the success of the plan of action, and making needed corrections. If the agreed-upon plan of action does not lead to the desired results, it is the fault of the plan, not of the individuals.

In situations in which a class quickly establishes an inappropriate norm, each child thinks that this way of behaving is not really the best way, but believes that he is the only one who sees the situation in this light. When processes are employed which enable each child to recognize that others in the class perceive the situation as he does, it is not difficult to change the established pattern of behavior to one that is more appropriate.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 13

Before entering the classroom it is the practice in our school to form lines and discontinue loud conversation. When all the class is gathered together in an orderly manner, the teacher gives the signal to proceed through the building to the room. (It is not expected that children refrain from talking at all nor that they should march with military precision.)

The very first day of school this middle-grade class had difficulty forming any kind of lines, reducing the amount and loudness of talking, and moving quietly through the halls to their room. The minor disorders which occurred on the first morning continued to erupt day after day, even though the first item of business on the opening day of school was to establish standards for entering and leaving the room. A discussion of standards has been a frequent order of business ever since. This confusion which is created before children ever get to the room seems to intensify the amount of disorder which occurs once they reach their seats. It takes a long time for things to really settle down. Chairs are shifted noisily and with what seems to be unnecessary vigor. Books drop and pencils roll under tables causing a scramble while they are recovered. All this activity is accompanied

by conversation or remarks made to no one in particular.

Children are bored to death with discussing standards. They all agree that the standards set are ones they should follow, but they never do. It is possible to get them to move in an orderly fashion by issuing strong orders backed up by threats which are carried out. However, this is an unpleasant way to begin the day's work and I would like them to achieve this on their own—not because they are forced into a more acceptable way of acting.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. How can a teacher prevent inappropriate behavior from developing the first day of school and thus prevent the establishment of inappropriate norms?

2. How can teachers establish a shared perception by children that conformity to established school practices is not only needed but also desirable?

### Action Steps

1. Divide into small discussion groups. Each group should plan the pattern of management activities that the teacher is to follow in cases similar to the incident described.

2. Decide on one or more possible approaches to the problem. Go back to the opening day of school when the teacher first discovers that the class is not exhibiting cooperative behavior when entering and leaving the room.

### Concluding Activities

1. The leaders of the small discussion groups can present the plans agreed upon by the members of their groups.

2. Following these presentations the large group can attempt to predict how the children might respond to each plan suggested.

### Comments

In addition to developing skillful management practices, accurate predictions also lead to effective management practices. Conversely, poor predictions lead to inappropriate practices. Teacher actions will evoke group reactions, and teachers must be aware of actions that will evoke nega-



tive reactions as well as of those which will create positive reactions.

## EFFECTS OF DECISION-MAKING ON SATISFACTION AND GROUP ATTRACTIVENESS

When children participate in developing guidelines for conduct, generally they accept and feel responsible for them and achieve some sense of satisfaction from having taken part in their formation.

The acceptance by individuals of the group decisions regarding the guidelines results from

1. Increased trust because the decisions are not imposed by the teacher.
2. A better understanding of what is expected because detailed plans of action have been discussed and clearly outlined.
3. The class having rejected ineffective ways of behaving and accepted more effective means.

The effectiveness of the decision is a function of the

1. Amount of involvement in the problem.
2. Fact that class members reach agreements and make commitments.
3. Fact that class members find themselves in a position of responsibility.

Class group attractiveness and satisfaction with classroom conditions are increased because of the

1. Recognition the teacher has given to the groups.
2. Increased opportunity for the group to solve problems and make contributions
3. Opportunity provided for members to work together and increase group stability.

The resources of the class group consist of ideas, information, and opinions, as well as the reasoning ability of the different members. When teachers utilize these resources effectively, the decisions reached by the group may be better and more workable than any the teacher might devise.

Teachers are responsible for helping individuals achieve learning objectives. The principle defining characteristics of their management function is to facilitate group functioning so that conditions are such that they, and individuals in their class groups, can accomplish instructional goals. Teachers are responsible for instruction and learning, but successful accomplishment of this dimension of teaching depends primarily on their ability to obtain the help and

cooperation of the children so that instruction can proceed without continual disruptions and work stoppages.

There are several reasons why satisfaction increases when decisions come from the group. One is that satisfaction leads to group interaction and improved group functioning. Another source of satisfaction stems from the decision-making process. When teachers make the decisions, this source of self-fulfillment is denied to the class members. Individuals also find the decision process, when used to establish guidelines for behavior, satisfying because of the opportunity it presents to accept the responsibility for their own behavior. Finally, it clarifies for individuals what the others perceive to be right and correct.

The situation in the simulation incident describes a class group which would not accept the behavioral guidelines set for the monitors. Most likely the children were told to elect monitors, what the tasks would be, and how the tasks were to be carried out. As a consequence, the children effectively sabotaged the monitor system and succeeded, also, in successfully creating a slowdown in classroom study and work. The children undoubtedly gained satisfaction from preventing the classroom schedule from operating smoothly. Rooms where such behavior occurs are seldom attractive, nor is the situation actually satisfying to youngsters.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 14

*In our room we have monthly elections for monitors. The class has discussed and understood why we have monitors and also the duties of a monitor. The class knows who the monitors are and the monitors know their duties.*

Students come up to me constantly to ask permission to perform various duties, even those that are assigned to monitors. This is very disruptive.

Although I have told them individually and as a group not to come up to me to ask to do the job of a monitor, they persist in coming up. Some children will even sit at their seats and ask out loud if they can erase the board or whatever the job may be. We have discussed the advantages of having monitors, the class has accepted them, but this disruptive behavior continues day after day. When we have meetings to elect monitors, it often happens that someone gets elected to lead the line, for example, and he says he doesn't want that job. He wants to be the messenger. When someone turns down a particular monitor job then nobody wants it. I do not appoint monitors unless I get permission to do so from the class, but sometimes there are more

appointed monitors than there are elected. Once in a while someone comes up after a week or two and says he is tired of being a monitor and wants to resign. After resigning he will act just like the others and come up to me to ask if he can do a particular job that belongs to another monitor. It is hard to understand why all this happens, but it certainly disrupts many class sessions.

Once after a day that was more disrupting than usual, I told the class that everyone would stay after school if it happened again. It did, and they stayed. The effect of this punishment lasted only two days and they were at it again. Nothing seems to work.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. The incident describes the consequences of poorly established guidelines for the operation of monitors. The training task is to plan a presentation to be made to such a class that will prevent such a problem situation from occurring.

2. Present the situation in terms of what needs to be accomplished. The possible need for monitors might be suggested, but it is the objectives, not the method for reaching them, that should be clearly in focus. The method of reaching the objectives should be determined by the class by use of group decision techniques.

### Action Steps

1. The class divides into study groups of four or five members.

2. Each group member plans a presentation and tries it out on the rest of the group to study their reactions and responses. These statements should be stated to direct children toward thinking how objectives may be reached rather than presented in a manner that might arouse their defensive reactions.

### Concluding Activities

1. Leaders of the small training groups report back the various ways their members decided that the situation might be presented to arouse mutual interest so that the children would willingly plan how to carry out various jobs in the classroom.

**2. The large group analyzes and discusses the various approaches presented.**

**Comment**

If the initial presentation of the problem implies that the class group members have been lax or have been doing something wrong, the children will feel it necessary to defend themselves. The nature of the situation should be presented and the objectives spelled out in terms of what needs to be done. The whole situation should be presented in positive terms with no implied suggestions that conditions are poor or that the teacher is objecting to something. When children work together to plan how to improve their work situation and how to take responsibility for monitor duties, class group attraction usually increases, as does satisfaction with the work situation.

# **6**

## **USING PROBLEM SOLVING TO IMPROVE CLASSROOM CONDITIONS**

### **INTRODUCTION**

The major goal of classroom management is to develop and promote satisfying, healthy conditions in the classroom system and to keep the system functioning smoothly. Teachers must be sure that their classroom groups grow, change, and contribute to each individual member's achievement, as well as make it possible for individuals to develop to the full extent of their potential.

Children in the classroom are constantly seeking to improve conditions for themselves. Often they act collectively. How they act depends on how they perceive the school and classroom environment and on their ability to affect it. It cannot be expected that the teacher and the classroom group share the same perceptions of the environment. Receiving good grades, for example, may be highly important to teachers when, in fact, children may find it more important to work in a comfortable atmosphere free of petty irritants or tensions. Students may value the right to work in an atmosphere that does not affront their self-concepts nor degenerate their self-worth more than they desire good grades. Children often resist the ordinary restraints imposed by teachers for the sake of order and efficiency. Some groups flaunt work controls or resist them because they cannot submit and still retain the sense of independence they require as fully functioning individuals.

The objectives of education for each grade level or grouping of children are clearly defined; in many instances, the ways these objectives are reached is also defined. In many cases, however, children can be given the responsibility for determining how they are to do their work, or they may be given the opportunity to make decisions regarding their methods of operation and work arrangements. Thus they gain a feeling of having some control over their working environment.

## HUMAN NEEDS AND CLASSROOM CONTROLS

Educational practice from both the near past and the present has emphasized creating a good classroom climate and establishing conditions that will enable children to develop to their full potential. This is a laudable goal, but the methods for achieving it have never been clearly defined. Teachers want to have good climates, yet many classrooms exist in which the children show apathy, indifference, noninvolvement, and, in some cases, lack of responsibility.

In many school organizations, the environment is one in which the children have little, if any, control over their workaday world. They are told where they are to sit, when they can move, how to move, and when they can talk. They are expected to be passive, dependent, and subordinate. They are expected to develop only one aspect of their intellectual abilities. They are rarely asked to solve problems concerning the environmental conditions in which they work. In fact, many times they are asked to study, work, and learn under conditions that are ideal for psychological failure. These conditions may be imposed by teachers who are kind, considerate, and concerned over the welfare of each individual child. The error does not lie in the psychological make-up of the teacher. The cause may be traced to the fact that their teachers are using inappropriate control techniques that do not provide conditions under which individuals can satisfy their own needs best by cooperating and directing their efforts toward learning and achieving.

Perhaps school controls are rigid because of the age of the children; perhaps because some school personnel believe that most children tend to resist the formal school organization and must be forced into a conforming pattern; or, perhaps, unconsciously, because of their youth, it is believed that children of their own accord could never make appropriate decisions about the working conditions in the classroom. The facts do indicate that many children in classrooms today are apathetic and indifferent and their nonresponsiveness requires that a great deal of instructional skill be used to arouse their interest. Children are not inherently lazy, apathetic, hostile, or irresponsible. These undesirable pupil reactions are results of conditions in schools, teacher-management practices, and school policies. Many of the "discipline problems" that occur in schools have their origin in the very practices that are used to overcome them. Children, if given the opportunity, will take responsibility and make appropriate decisions about the way they will work and behave.

Educators agree that when basic human wants are satisfied, need for self-realization, self-expression, and self-esteem come into play.

The energy that comes from these needs is utilized as children are given the opportunity to use their intelligence and abilities to achieve a sense of responsibility, self-control, and personal integrity.

However, there seems to be a lack of consistency between what is said and believed about the nature of children and the policies and controls used by teachers and principals and advocated in the literature of education. The nature of the school and classroom organization is such that it requires children to be entirely dependent upon the teacher. They are expected to follow directions, obey, show respect, work, and move without question. These requirements, however, are not consistent with all that is known about the growing, maturing, individual child. A submissive and dependent child is unable to maintain a sense of personal integrity. Children as well as adults aspire to be relatively independent, self-controlled, and self-responsible. As a result, many children are constantly rebelling because of the disparity between their needs to develop and grow up and the control practices imposed upon them.

Children cannot leave the school. The law demands that they remain until a certain amount of work is covered or until they have reached a certain age. Since they cannot leave, and since individually they are relatively helpless to resist the power of the school organization, they collectively develop adaptive measures. Children in learning groups often form large or small solidified blocks of resistance. They develop means for disrupting the learning activities so that school work is slowed down, and they may approve the disruptive activities of one or a few individuals. They may develop their own standards of conduct which are incongruous with those expected by the school. When individuals in class groups are unable to achieve solidarity and the members are unable to work in unity, they may resort to conflict in order to ease pressure. When groups are submissive and dependent, members seem to find no way of escaping the unsatisfactory conditions; children in these groups are easily distracted, at times apathetic and indifferent to completing school tasks. Some extremely frustrated groups resort to scapegoating as a means of adapting to unsatisfactory classroom and school conditions. Usually, however, to retain a sense of their own integrity children collectively join together to resist the controls that frustrate them.

At present, suggested classroom-management controls are based on the assumption that children should accept without question the organized world of the school in which they are required to be subordinate, submissive, and oftentimes dependent, and in which they are asked to use few of their interpersonal abilities. This assumption, however, runs counter to the nature of children growing up in our democratic culture. The dynamic nature of individuals gives them no choice but to react. Some individuals react on their

own. Usually, however, the natural gregariousness of children causes them to band together to resist. Sometimes, however, whole groups of children feel they cannot resist and they seem to accept. This acceptance is based on resignation, and their reactions are ones of apathy and noninvolvement. In this way these children are able to avoid some of the tensions and frustrations produced by the control practices employed in schools.

Apathetic and indifferent reactions may help children adjust to school, but unfortunately, they severely reduce the capacity to learn, to work on school tasks, or to create. These children are the human problems in classrooms—problems created not because of the nature of children or their cultural background, and not because of socioeconomic conditions. These problems too often are primarily the result of inappropriate control practices, rules for behavior, and unsatisfactory classroom working conditions.

## MEETING HUMAN NEEDS THROUGH PROBLEM SOLVING

There are several ways of improving classroom conditions. One solution that decreases the subordination, dependency, and submissiveness expected of children and which provides them with feelings of personal worth and a sense of their own integrity is to allow them to have some say about their working arrangements. Also, they can be given problems of interpersonal relations to solve. Some may say this is done in classrooms today. Too frequently, however, children are not given problems which require the working out of solutions. Instead they are presented with problems with predetermined solutions, and they are expected to reach the "right" answer. These planning processes further increase feelings of subordination.

In schools where problem solving is encouraged as an instructional technique, a sequence of steps is given for teachers to follow. A chart to guide the class may be displayed at the beginning of a lesson. In some cases it emphasizes more the evaluation and criteria for choosing between ideas than the drawing forth and eliciting of possible solutions.

Three patterns of problem solving in discussion groups were investigated in a study.<sup>1</sup> The patterns were variations of the ideas that were involved in the problem—"What is the problem and how

---

<sup>1</sup> Brillhart, J. K. and L. M. Jockem, "Effects of Different Patterns on Outcomes of Problem-Solving Discussion," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 48:175-179, June 1964.



serious is it?"—and of the criteria and evaluations for choosing between the ideas—"How are we going to choose the best ideas? What criteria shall we use to judge among the ideas?" The emphasis which is usually placed on value, quality-criteria, and evaluation of the ideas given or to be given in the discussion may limit the expression of ideas. The pattern which required the setting up of criteria after the discussion of the problem, but *before* the participants had given their ideas was ranked lowest of the three patterns. This may indicate that talking about criteria apart from the ideas to be judged was difficult and artificial.

It frequently is stated that the best way to solve a problem is to prevent it. This is true only in some cases. It is, of course, advantageous to prevent the confusion, anxiety, and work-stoppage created because instructions are not clear or because they are changed several times. There is no advantage in creating disorder if such disorder can be prevented. However, many problems arise daily in classrooms that cannot be prevented. Such problems provide teachers with opportunities to involve their class groups in problem solving. The process itself is valuable even though the best outcome is not immediately achieved. When groups engage in a process that calls for an exchange of ideas and for reaching shared conclusions, unity is increased. If the problem is concerned with some aspect of group living, it provides an opportunity for class groups to make some decisions for themselves about how they work and operate. The process provides a means for orderly interaction that tends to increase internal security in the group.

There are many types of problems relating to working arrangements that children can work out by means of problem-solving processes. For example, the seating arrangement can be planned by children in many cases. This does not mean that children are given a choice of where they will sit, nor does it mean simply that they are allowed alternatives. It means that children are given a clear definition of the problem and are given, also, clear specifications that their answers to the problem must satisfy. In other words, children must be given the boundary conditions that their decisions must accomplish. (The arrangement of tables, and so forth cannot be such that exits are blocked, for example.) The children, with the teacher acting as the discussion leader, suggest plans that will be acceptable to them and yet meet the boundary conditions. When a plan is decided upon, it has built into it a theory of action as to how the plan is to be carried out. If the problem and the specifications which the plan must meet have been stated correctly by the teacher, it will not be necessary for him to object to a suggestion. All the teacher needs to do is to direct the group's attention to the specifications: "Does the plan meet it?"

After a plan is put into action, the group tests the effectiveness

of the plan against the actual course of events. Does the plan work, or are changes needed? When these questions are asked, the teacher is inquiring if the group is satisfied. If the teacher feels the plan needs revision, he again states the problem including an overlooked specification, and the class is once more put to work to solve the problem.

If the human needs of independence, worth, and participation are to be met, teachers must be willing to accept the plans the children develop and the solutions they reach. If the specifications are clear and the problem well structured, children usually do arrive at very sensible and workable solutions. In cases where they do not, it is usually because the problem is ill structured or the specifications unclear and inadequate.

Problem-solving processes involve the use of positive concepts and convictions about children and classroom groups in action. The successful outcome of problem-solving sessions rests upon faith in children and respect for their abilities to find solutions that will work. Teachers who lack confidence in their classroom groups and do not believe the children can or will solve problems of concern to them, probably will not give their classes any meaningful problems to work upon. Possibly they should not, if they feel strongly that the group will not succeed. There is no point in asking the class to help in identifying or solving a problem if the results of the problem-solving process are not going to be taken seriously.

Teachers who successfully use problem solving with their classes to improve working conditions and to make them more satisfying recognize that the use of this process strengthens group unity and integration and increases cooperation. It also strengthens the self-concepts of individuals when they are given opportunities to work out problems and develop creative approaches to difficult situations. The success of teachers' instructional efforts is determined largely by the extent to which they command support, cooperation, and productive effort in their classroom groups. By giving their class groups some authority and responsibilities for managing their own affairs, teachers are reflecting a genuine understanding of individual and group needs.

## THE NATURE OF PROBLEM SOLVING

Teachers generally are very familiar with the phases of problem solving. Following the various phases in sequential steps can be a purely mechanical and useless process if teachers do not recognize that because problems, conditions, and needs differ, a need is

created for various changes in phase movement. For example, many times a situation arises in the classroom in which the problem is unclear. The process involved in this case is finding out what the problem is and removing the source of trouble; at times, merely identifying the problem and making a few simple changes resolves the difficulty. In other cases, the problem is known, but is ill structured and therefore difficult to state in a way that can be made operational. One study indicates that the structure of the task about which decisions have to be made has a strong influence on the group decision-making process.<sup>2</sup> Again, the problem may be clear, but many paths lead to the solution. Finally, the problem may be the solution, i.e., the solution is known. To arrive at an agreement, which requires a group decision, is the problem.

Problems vary in nature. Some are concerned with working conditions, time, spatial arrangements, and with finding the best ways of working. Many of the activities children engage in day after day have a motion cycle. These types of problems require a study of the sequence of events or motions that constitute the activity because when the work requires that numbers of children move in an orderly pattern and they fail to do so, other problems occur. Another kind of problem is that which arises from efforts of individuals to work together in a group. (These may be problems involving social-emotional relationships of one kind or another.) Problems frequently arise from sources outside the classroom. Problems in working may be created because the room is located near a traffic center in the building, or it receives more playground noise than usual. Such problems may not be solved completely by classroom groups, but by working to overcome them they can minimize the difficulties.

To use problem solving effectively, teachers must have insight into the psychology of their classroom groups. In using problem-solving methods to improve classroom working conditions, teachers need an understanding of what their groups can and cannot do. It is one thing to deal with a classroom organization which is unified and which has developed acceptable working standards, and another to deal with one which is still no more than a cluster of individuals who have not yet been able to develop internal consistency and any degree of stabilization. A unified cooperative group and the development of internal discipline make it possible for these groups to function fairly smoothly in their attempts to solve problems of concern to the group. On the other hand, unresolved problems affecting group unity and interpersonal relationships inter-

---

<sup>2</sup> Hutte, H., "Decision taking in a Management Game," *Human Relations*, 18:5-20, 1965.

ferre with problem-solving activities. If the group must struggle to become a group, this private agenda problem may interfere with the problem-solving task because the members may have little energy left for effective task work. If the group is only slightly more than a random cluster of individuals, it can deal at first with only the simplest matters. The problem-solving process itself can help the group become more unified; however it will take much teacher initiative, direction, and skill because the group must succeed. Failure would affect such a group so adversely that the development of unity might be retarded for a long period of time. Problems that are easy for a unified, cooperative group to solve often are impossible for a group which is struggling to achieve unity. Teachers, then, must consider carefully the nature of the problem they are asking the group to solve, as well as the nature of the group that is to use a problem-solving approach.

Also, teachers must be aware of the reactions of a class group to any attempts to expand freedom when the group has been accustomed to strict controls in the past. Some groups may not respond at first in any meaningful way because members are distrustful or they believe that they must respond as the teacher wishes; how they think they should respond is not clear to them. The first attempts may also be slow to achieve results because groups, as well as individuals, solve problems in a stepwise fashion.<sup>3</sup> Some groups may have members who respond irresponsibly at first to test the teacher's motives. If the issue is one concerned with a problem of behavior control, the first response to solving the problem is likely to involve jumping to a conclusion. The conclusion predictably will be that violators should be punished. Unless teachers structure the problem and the boundary conditions well, children will try to solve many problems concerning conduct by suggesting punishments. They must be led to see that they are to work on changing conditions so that everyone can function without police actions. They must learn that punishment is not a solution but a last resort. When a satisfactory solution cannot be found, force is used to control the situation.

Teachers must understand the nature of their role in this management activity. Teachers may have misconceptions concerning how directive they should be. If they are fearful of becoming too authoritarian, they may become passive, indecisive, and vague. They may avoid the facilitative role they must assume because of fear of being too directive. However, if teachers do not exert leadership

---

<sup>3</sup> David, J. H. and F. Restle, "The Analysis of Problems and Prediction of Group Problem Solving," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 66:103-116, 1963.

they may find that some individuals in the class will take over and chaos will result. When the actual practices are discussed, it will be shown that problem-solving management activities represents a different set of facilitative skills, but not the abandonment of leadership and control of the group.

One common misunderstanding of the problem-solving approach is to think of it as a process in which children can vote on certain things and thus determine what they would like or would not like to do. This has serious repercussions. Arranging for children to vote on anything, except possibly class officers, immediately decreases unity and splits the group. Voting is a democratic process, but when used in large groups where it is the only possible way of making choices. It is not a small, face-to-face group technique. In any event, problem solving is a process of resolving differences, reaching solutions, or discovering sources of difficulties. It is a method of working out agreements. This means that there must be interaction, discussion, and testing of the effectiveness of the solution against how it operates in actual practice. Voting merely creates additional problems by splitting the group into winning and losing factions.

Sometimes teachers and others misunderstand the problem-solving approach by thinking that if the class group decides what is to be done, then teachers cannot be held responsible. However, the teacher is always responsible for the outcome, and having the class group solve problems does not mean that he will escape responsibility. The problem-solving process is employed so that better working relationships evolve and so that children can assume some responsibility over and independence in their own work. Teachers can never say, "This is what you decided!" Instead, if the solution is not satisfactory, teachers say, in effect, "Let's examine the situation again and see where we need to make changes." Teachers who employ problem-solving processes to improve group functioning never let a group fail to reach their goal or find some solution. If the wrong path is selected at first, the group tries a new method until they find the solution. If the process does not work, sometimes it is necessary to go back and re-examine the problem. Perhaps it was ill-structured. Some attempts may not work at first, but this is not failure. It merely means trying a different route.

Finally, teachers sometimes say that there is no time scheduled in the curriculum for such problem solving activities, and no instructional tasks would ever be completed if children were given all the problems of concern to them to solve. This is very true. However, children will not want to handle all their problems. What they do want is to know that they can have some voice and influence in matters of concern to them and in issues of great importance. In many cases, the teacher asks if his class wants to decide

something, and he finds the group prefers to have him solve the problem. When problems are of great importance to the group, however, teachers must find the time because instructional efforts will be spent largely in trying to hold interest and attention and not much work will be accomplished.

## CONDUCTING PROBLEM-SOLVING DISCUSSIONS

Teachers want to know the techniques and methods for conducting a problem-solving discussion. However, perhaps understanding what it is that is to be accomplished and developing the ability to recognize and formulate the problem are more important and have more relevance than the methods which follow. All of the techniques employed in the training incidents are essentially problem solving in nature. The problem-solving processes used to improve the climate and working conditions in the classroom are used primarily to help the classroom system to develop an internal steady state. This means that using problem solving helps to facilitate the classroom system so that it can develop and maintain itself internally, adapt to the external environment, and thereby enable individuals to more easily reach educational objectives. It is through problem-solving processes that classroom groups can begin to rid themselves of the strains, pressures, and frustrations that reduce the abilities of individuals to learn and achieve to their full potential. Finding effective solutions to problems is essential to group health. How the problems are solved or the nature of the solutions is not so important to teachers because their goal is to improve organizational health. Therefore, the selection of appropriate problems is important.

Many people have set up a sequence of steps involved in the problem-solving process. Most are based on John Dewey's description of an act of thought. Also, most state that the sequence is not a hard and fast rule. Some elements may overlap or be reversed. For example, a teacher may formulate a problem which proves to be only a symptom—a manifestation of an underlying basic situation. This is discovered when the discussion reveals that the real problem lies elsewhere. There are times, also, when teachers may use problem solving to discover the nature of the problem.

Utterback considers problem solving as including five major phases or steps:

1. Statement and definition of the problem.
2. Examination of the facts out of which the problem arises.
3. Consideration of the criteria to be used in evaluating solutions.

4. Examination and appraisal of solutions.
5. Consideration of the steps to be taken in carrying out the solution adopted.<sup>4</sup>

Wagner and Arnold describe the process as follows:

1. Defining and limiting the problem-question.
2. Analyzing and evaluating the problem.
3. Establishing criteria or standards by which solutions will be judged acceptable or unacceptable.
4. Examining the consequences of each available solution.
5. Selecting the preferred solution or solutions.
6. Putting the preferred solution into effect.<sup>5</sup>

Smuck presents the following problem-solving scheme which includes these stages:

1. Identifying classroom group problems.
2. Diagnosing the classroom problems.
3. Developing a plan of action.
4. Trying out the plan.
5. Obtaining feedback and making an evaluation.<sup>6</sup>

Whatever steps or scheme is employed, the use of problem solving in facilitative management activities consists of:

1. Giving attention to situations affecting conditions in the classroom.
2. Formulating a problem statement from which a solution may be derived.
3. Developing statements or questions which will draw out the data desired.
4. Building into the solution the action needed to carry it out.
5. Testing the effectiveness of the solution against the course of events which follow.

The foregoing scheme represents only a general outline of processes that occur in a group problem-solving discussion. Many times the problem may be formulated to discover the nature of the problem so that the group (or teacher) can be fully aware of its scope and extent. Following analysis, the problem may need

---

<sup>4</sup> Wm. Utterback, *Group Thinking and Conference Leadership*, New York, Rinehart, 1950, p. 34.

<sup>5</sup> R. H. Wagner and C. Carroll Arnold, *Handbook of Group Discussion*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1950, pp. 70-72.

<sup>6</sup> Richard A. Smuck, "Helping Teachers Improve Class Group Processes," *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, Vol. 4, No. 4, 1968, pp 101-135

reformulation in terms of facts that have been discovered in the analysis phase. As training begins with the use of specific incidents, this point can be illustrated much more clearly. The nature of the problem often determines the problem-solving sequence.

The situation or condition which leads to a problem-solving discussion is usually clearly visible. In so far as possible teachers should determine whether the problem is a real problem or just a symptom of a real problem. Also, teachers must determine whether the problem is one that the class group should appropriately solve, or whether the decision should be made by the teacher because there is only one solution.

Formulating the problem for presentation to the class is a most crucial part of the process. If the opening statement is ambiguous, and if the purpose of the discussion is not clear, the discussion is doomed at the outset. A proper formulation of the problem clarifies not only the purpose of the discussion, but it also makes clear the procedures, responsibilities, and boundary conditions. It is most important to avoid questions or statements that imply criticism or threat or that imply that the children must reach a preconceived solution. For example, teachers sometimes state a problem in question form which says, "The monitors have been neglecting their jobs—particularly the paint monitors. What should we do about this?" Such a beginning does not open up possibilities for solutions. Instead, a solution is implied. Also, because the statement is critical of the behavior of the paint monitors, it is threatening to everyone and predictably will raise defensive reactions. Even if the children have been critical of the paint monitors, the implied criticism will rally the group to their side. Children will not be able to solve the monitor problem if they are immediately made defensive. The opening statement also violates the principle that if children are not functioning efficiently, the cause lies in conditions and seldom in the individuals themselves. The blame here seems to rest on the individuals performing the paint monitor job instead of upon the conditions that are creating the inefficiency. Most problems can be solved by correcting situations, and it is useless as well as harmful to direct the thinking toward blaming individuals. A new plan for handling the monitor tasks is positive and more likely to yield successful solutions.

A teacher reported that his class group worked well most of the time. When a messenger came into the room with a note requiring a response or if the teacher was called aside for a short conference, however, the group invariably engaged in conversation among themselves instead of carrying on with their regular assignment. The teacher began a problem-solving discussion by saying, "What can we do to stop the talking when a monitor comes with



a memo, or if I must step aside for a moment to speak to a visitor?"

This type of statement includes the solution the teacher desires. It stimulates resistance and does not offer a choice. Resistance and hostility result from a problem stated to communicate a command to be obeyed rather than a problem to be solved. Also, it is important to realize that suggesting a solution contradicts the whole purpose of the problem solving discussion.

The purpose is to involve the group in interaction and to encourage and help the class members in planning and working together. The objective is not to do their thinking for them.

After the problem has been formulated and introduced, the next task is to engage the group in free discussion. Teachers may from time to time need to clarify an unclear point or a statement made by a child. It is a questionable and stultifying procedure to call on children or to call on each individual in turn. Children soon learn either to speak without being called on or, when they find they will eventually have the opportunity to speak, wait for their turns. The fact that children speak out all at once results from the fact that discussions are cut short before they have had their turn and a chance to express themselves.

Sometimes it is necessary, depending upon the nature of the problem, to explore how children perceive the situation and then move toward finding constructive solutions. Following this phase, the group can be directed to consider how the situation may be remedied. At this point, a very useful leadership skill is the ability to restate ideas and to summarize from time to time.

The ideas advanced by the group are recorded on the chalkboard with no evaluative comments. Even if only a phrase of the suggestion is recorded (a complete statement is too time consuming), a visible listing seems to encourage suggestions and is a way for the teacher to show acceptance of all ideas. After all the ideas are recorded, the teacher may regroup similar suggestions to reduce the number of solutions. Often children have agreed upon a trial solution at this point. If they have not, the teacher proceeds with exploratory questions to help them test the validity of the solution in terms of a desired outcome. The children can reconsider the matter in light of supplementary considerations.

After a solution is selected, the group proceeds with evaluating, consolidating, and organizing the data into a final plan of action. During the total procedure, the teacher's actions are consistent with the idea that the major purpose of this type of problem-solving discussion is to enable members to participate and freely interact to improve group functioning, and that reaching a certain approved solution is not the major objective.

The follow-up procedure is important since the major objective

is to change conditions in the group or environment so that individuals can perform more effectively. Even though the effort is highly successful and the problem disappears, a slip-back to old conditions may occur if attention is not called to maintaining the success of the venture. The group can be appraised favorably for the success of the solution. If the plan of action is not as successful as the group desires and if modification is needed, the problem is reconsidered by the group and the corrections are made. Never is any suggestion of failure or a criticism made concerning the original solution. The follow-up is not discontinued until the group is entirely satisfied with the solution.

Teacher skills to guide the steps in problem solving are required whether the source of the problem is obvious or obscure. The identification of the real source of difficulty may appear to be obvious, but, in fact, be hidden. The step which calls for an examination of the conditions of the problem is more difficult when the teacher and the group must locate a source that is not evident. When the situation in its entirety has been looked at and the source of difficulty placed in that context, the next step becomes the formulation of the problem statement. It is so stated that a solution may be derived by the class. The discussion of the relevant data through questions and statements by the class members follows. The guidance of this phase of the process should include the use of summaries and questions by the teacher. This will maintain the focus on the problem, keep communications clear, and help the group to progress toward a solution. The next step is that of developing the planned action which is the problem solution. The emphasis on the plan, rather than on the individuals who proposed it, helps to unify the group and gain their acceptance of and support for the plan. The testing of the effectiveness of the solution, the last step, requires that the group, under the guidance of the teacher, act and review its actions.

## INTRODUCING THE PROBLEM

One of the first tasks faced by teachers preparing to introduce problem-solving discussions is the identification of the problem. Of course, in many cases the problem is clearly identifiable. In other cases, the problem-solving process may be directed toward locating the problem or the source of the difficulty. However, many times the actual problem is difficult to determine.

A problem has certain characteristics that separate it from a topic, subject, or theme. It contains within it a question proposed for solution or consideration; it has objectives to be reached and obstacles which must be overcome. A statement that locates the

a memo, or if I must step aside for a moment to speak to a visitor?"

This type of statement includes the solution the teacher desires. It stimulates resistance and does not offer a choice. Resistance and hostility result from a problem stated to communicate a command to be obeyed rather than a problem to be solved. Also, it is important to realize that suggesting a solution contradicts the whole purpose of the problem-solving discussion.

The purpose is to involve the group in interaction and to encourage and help the class members in planning and working together. The objective is not to do their thinking for them.

After the problem has been formulated and introduced, the next task is to engage the group in free discussion. Teachers may from time to time need to clarify an unclear point or a statement made by a child. It is a questionable and stultifying procedure to call on children or to call on each individual in turn. Children soon learn either to speak without being called on or, when they find they will eventually have the opportunity to speak, wait for their turns. The fact that children speak out all at once results from the fact that discussions are cut short before they have had their turn and a chance to express themselves.

Sometimes it is necessary, depending upon the nature of the problem, to explore how children perceive the situation and then move toward finding constructive solutions. Following this phase, the group can be directed to consider how the situation may be remedied. At this point, a very useful leadership skill is the ability to restate ideas and to summarize from time to time.

The ideas advanced by the group are recorded on the chalkboard with no evaluative comments. Even if only a phrase of the suggestion is recorded (a complete statement is too time consuming), a visible listing seems to encourage suggestions and is a way for the teacher to show acceptance of all ideas. After all the ideas are recorded, the teacher may regroup similar suggestions to reduce the number of solutions. Often children have agreed upon a trial solution at this point. If they have not, the teacher proceeds with exploratory questions to help them test the validity of the solution in terms of a desired outcome. The children can reconsider the matter in light of supplementary considerations.

After a solution is selected, the group proceeds with evaluating, consolidating, and organizing the data into a final plan of action. During the total procedure, the teacher's actions are consistent with the idea that the major purpose of this type of problem-solving discussion is to enable members to participate and freely interact to improve group functioning, and that reaching a certain approved solution is not the major objective.

The follow-up procedure is important since the major objective

an opportunity to express their ideas. It may be useful to suggest to the group that the reason for the discussion is to solve a problem; therefore each person who wishes to contribute needs to be given the opportunity to do so.

The next training incident describes a class in which the teacher-group interaction was very poor and group functioning could be much improved. By using a problem-solving process to correct a condition that the group indicated needed changing, conditions in the group and between the teacher and the group could have been improved.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 15

Just prior to beginning our history lesson, the bell sounded indicating a fire drill. After returning to the classroom, my fifth grade students had difficulty settling down. When they did finally quiet down, it was time for the afternoon recess.

After recess, seven of my students left to attend their regular Communication Skills class. With my absentees and these seven, the remainder composed of only two thirds of the entire class, was left.

As we began the lesson, I discovered that the children were having difficulty in concentrating upon the text and discussion.

I finally inquired as to why they were being difficult, and they indicated that they were displeased with the seating arrangement. They claimed that they were unable to work well with the desks set apart into three groups. I then proceeded to inquire if they had any suggestions as to how we might change the desks to suit them. They preferred to move the desks into one large U, stating that last year this was done and that they enjoyed it and were able to work more effectively as a class.

I then allowed several students at a time to move their desks accordingly. After the children arranged the desks in the large U, several extra desks did not fit and they were placed in the center.

We then continued with the lesson and I noticed several different happenings. A few individuals began talking with one another. I asked the class to quiet them, for if they wanted to remain this way they would have to prove to me that they could work better. A few told them to be quiet. This did not seem to work, so I told them to think, perhaps, of a signal to use. They tried, but I noticed as we continued the lesson that there was a constant undercurrent.

general area of the problem usually does not identify the problem. A problem-solving discussion may be opened by describing the general ambience in which the problem is located. Statements need to be directed toward opening up the general area of investigation. Unless, however, the problem solving activity is being used to define a problem, following the introduction there must be a specific identification of the situation that the children in the group are asked to solve. A statement giving a description of the over-all situation may be used as the beginning point for introducing the problem, but these statements do not specify the problem. Such statements are used to describe the difficulties and create a "problem awareness," that is they are attempts to make it clear to class group members that their help is needed and wanted to improve the situation.

Identifying the problem and finding the right words to present the problem requires study and preparation. It is essential to have the situation, as well as the problem, clearly in focus and to know why the situation is a problem. It may be that the students' ability to concentrate on school work is affected, interpersonal relations are deteriorating, morale is poor, or other reasons.

A crucial feature of the beginning phase of problem solving is to gain interest and involvement. If teachers are to gain this interest and involvement they must ask themselves if they really are willing to respect all views and solutions, and, most important, do they really believe the group is capable of solving the problem. When teachers are sure that their attitudes are conducive to successful problem solving, they can proceed to plan how to introduce the problem.

The problem should be stated in positive terms, and statements should be avoided that make it appear that there are objections or that blame is placed upon the group. The objective is to arouse the group to action while avoiding defense reactions. The problem must be presented so that members of the class recognize that their solution is genuinely sought. If the introduction and problem statement are presented in a way that causes the group members to feel that they are being accused of something, they will react defensively and lose their desire to solve the problem.

Problem solving will be expedited if the physical arrangements are satisfactory. If the children are spread out around the room in a huge circle, the problem-solving process will be less effective than if they are seated closer together. Children should be able to see one another. When this arrangement is not feasible, seating members close together will give them a feeling of belonging to the group. Children should understand that problem solving in a group as large as most classes poses problems and that unless each individual limits what he wishes to say, many will not have

The setting for the problem solving is to include the same class and teacher that are described in the incident. In the next class period in which there is a similar condition, that is, a general feeling of unrest, an undercurrent of noise, and a reluctance to settle down to the task, the teacher decides to have a group discussion on the problem.

Assume that you as the teacher have made preparations, based upon the happenings described in the incident, to guide the discussion.

To prepare for discussion, divide into discussion committees of three to five persons. Each committee should choose a member to start the discussion.

For the first assignment, the committee is to

1. Cooperatively outline the statement and explanation to be used by the teacher in starting the discussion with the class.
2. Prepare a brief written question that is the crux of the explanatory remarks.

Each committee member is to contribute, and the revision and improvement of the written question and explanation is to be a group product.

The written question will be placed on a chalkboard or chart at the beginning of the problem-solving session with the class.

Conditions to be observed in wording the question are

1. The teacher's opinion is not expressed.
2. There is awareness of the problem.
3. The problem is not clear.
4. There may be one or more contributing sources.
5. There is need to solve the problem—such as achievement.

Other ideas may be incorporated into the points the teacher will make orally, such as previous problems met by the class, and so forth.

The written question and the outline of oral points are to be approved by the committee. A chart, if one is to be used in presenting the committee's written question to the class or large group, should be prepared.

For the second assignment the committee will consider how to effectively communicate the questions and points just devised to the class.

Each member is to give his ideas. Determine the ideas to be incorporated by the person who will play the teacher in the reality practice. Choose the person or have a volunteer for the part of the teacher. The other committee mem-

We then began discussing the importance of the invention of the cotton gin and attempted to roll small amounts of cotton into thread. After collecting the cotton from the several who were doing this, we continued. I then noticed cotton flying through the room from one student who had kept some in his desk.

I was determined to maintain self-control and this was noticed by the children. At one point, one student told another to go pat the teacher (as if to burp me in order to soothe me as one would an infant).

Finally, the 3:00 bell sounded. The seven returned and the class quieted down so that they could go home.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

The problem is unclear and its sources not known to the teacher. It is clear that a problem exists in the class. How can the teacher word a statement to begin a problem-solving period with the class? The statement is to draw out the pupils' ideas of what the problem is and its causes. It is not to contain the teacher's opinions or suggestions. In effect, the teacher's opening statement is to indicate

1. Awareness that a problem exists.
2. That the problem is unclear.
3. That the class is asked to share its ideas in identifying the problem.

How can the teacher communicate his faith in the ability of the class to identify the problem (and at later stages to devise and carry out a workable plan) and his willingness to listen to their ideas?

What is the meaning of the attitude of the class toward the teacher?

### Action Steps

The instructor or a student who has prepared to do so should read the incident to the whole group.

Discuss the teacher's problem in introducing a problem-solving period when the problem is unknown or unclear. Why are the teacher's introductory remarks so important in this case?

Each committee is assigned to prepare an introductory statement.

lenged. Over and over, however, teachers find that time is lost because of the trouble that occurs during the physical education or play situation.

Teachers spend a great deal of time in their teacher-education programs learning organizational practices that reduce children to states of great dependency. In some cases, to be dependent is satisfying to children. They want to be taken care of and to feel secure. In the majority of cases, dependency is frustrating because their freedom has such narrow limits. To depend upon a teacher's decisions as to what to do and how to do it is to be limited in freedom. Frequently children perceive teachers' organizational efforts as arbitrary and unjust. Although children in the formal school setting can never be completely independent, nor would they wish to be, some independence in planning and solving their own problems is very satisfying. It must be recognized that the process of growing up involves a gradual shift from dependency to nondependency. As children grow and develop they are able to and desirous of taking more and more responsibility. When teachers make the majority of decisions regarding how children will work and play, the students become sensitive to the situation. They increasingly resent having to work and play in a classroom or playground situation that requires the dependency expected of very small children.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 16

At my school we have a problem which repeats itself every year and appears common to all grades 6-8. Our sixth grade classes are self-contained except for our P. E. program; the two men teachers take all the boys and the two women teachers take all the girls for the four classes. This is a fine arrangement, because the boys and girls of this age group are beginning to develop physically and are extremely self-conscious when mixed together for physical activity.

The problem is in getting the students assembled, in an orderly manner, for the warm-up exercises which precede the teams separating to go to their assigned game areas. Because we are allowed only one twenty-minute period a day for P. E., before we leave the room we try to take care of all the details such as the election of room captains, co-captains, and the choosing of team members; instructions as to which teams play opposite each other; what game they are playing; the assigned areas for each game, and so forth. However, no matter how often we discuss the short time we have for games, most of the students refuse to follow the instructions.



bers may play the parts of students. An observer may be used.

The practice begins with

1. The display of the committee's chart.
2. The teacher giving the introductory remarks and explanation.
3. The committee members participating as students or observers.

The reality practice may be extended enough to offer the students an opportunity to present their perceptions of the problem. This part of the practice is not essential in attaining the training objectives, however.

Review the effectiveness of the plan, discuss the implementation of the skills by the teacher, and review the action in light of the training problems.

#### Concluding Activities

Each group will present its plan (from the first assignment) as prepared (in the second assignment) to the large group. Evaluate through general discussion:

1. The pros and cons of the questions written on the charts or chalkboard.
2. The ideas used in the teacher's remarks.
3. The effective communication—trust in the group to solve the problem.
4. The probable effects on the class.
5. Needed next steps.

Discuss the values gained from the exercise.

## LEARNING TO LEAD DISCUSSIONS

Often teachers do all the planning for physical education classes or play periods. Where the children are to play, and sometimes what they are to play may be regulated by school policy. Teachers assign the games and tell the children the regulations for using various pieces of equipment. All that children may be allowed to do is elect team captains. In certain cases they may also choose the team they wish to be on, but even this choice is denied sometimes. Although democratic processes and teacher-pupil planning are advocated in the literature, teachers are told, also, that there is no excuse for wasting time in organizing children for work and play. The inconsistency of these words of advice is seldom chal-

### Action Steps

1. To prepare for small-group discussion of the training problems, the instructor will divide the class into groups of five or six persons, and ask the groups to select one member of each group as a discussion leader.

2. The training-group teachers should study the training problems and then conduct the discussion in their groups. The discussion should take about thirty-five minutes.

### Concluding Activities

1. One at a time the discussion leaders will report the conclusion reached by their groups. The instructor will summarize the decisions on the blackboard under the number of each training group.

2. Following the reports, the training-group members will be asked if they accept their group's report. Where members feel the discussion could have been improved, they should summarize their criticisms. Evaluations should be made of the effectiveness of the various discussion leaders. A general discussion can assess

- (a) What they did that was particularly effective as well as what could have been done.
- (b) What the leaders might have done to increase the interest and satisfaction of members in the discussion.
- (c) What the leaders might have done to improve the quality of the contributions.
- (d) What the leaders might have done to move the discussion along to a final conclusion.

3. If time permits, the instructor can guide the total group in making an analysis of the reports. The analysis may include

- (a) The number of common factors in the reports.
- (b) The relative merits of the reports of the various groups.
- (c) The value of the specific suggestions.

## FAILURE TO REACH AGREEMENTS

Problem solving, or group participation in solving problems that are of concern to the group, may be used with the objective of breaking up ingrained habits of distrust or noncooperation. Problem-solving activities may be employed to develop openness, trust, and cooperation, as well as to involve children in active joint solutions of problems of concern to all. Also, problem solving

Instead of getting in line behind their team captains they gather in groups to talk with their friends, laugh, giggle, jump around, and yell back and forth to each other; anything to attract attention to themselves. Telling them to get into their proper places has little or no effect, and by the time order is restored, fifteen minutes have passed and we have only five minutes left. This means a warm-up period and no games; the few who tried to behave are resentful because they did not get to play and they blame the students who did not do what they were supposed to do. Those who are censored by their fellow-students answer by saying such things as, "You weren't in your place either," and/or "I wasn't the only one," "Everybody else was yelling too and nobody else was in line." The captains complain that no listens to or cooperates with them. The team members call the captains tattletales for reporting them to the teacher, and everyone winds up with a general feeling of resentment and conflict until they finally all are of one opinion it is the "mean, old" teachers' fault that they don't get to have games for P. E.

This problem usually clears up when the teachers are able to call the students by name to remind them that they are not participating and that they are holding up the games. But what can we do, during the first few weeks of school, to eliminate this chaotic situation without using the undesirable methods of moralizing, threat, or control?

If I could find the answer to this problem, my school would pin a medal on me, probably, as this is a problem which affects the entire upper three grade level, teacher organization, plus the administrative personnel. The general consensus seems to be that this is a normal juvenile behavior pattern and nothing can be done about it.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. The primary concern in this training session is with the process of identifying and developing some understanding of the problem. The early stages of the training-group discussion should strive to locate and formulate the problem as specifically as possible.
2. The training groups may need to explore the incident for some time before members can agree on what the problem actually may be. Following this, the training groups should consider possible action goals.

positions and why they feel the way they do. Many times when time is given to these individuals for this purpose they achieve satisfaction and find that they really wish to go along with the group. Sometimes if individuals are able to give good reasons as to why they disagree the group may decide to shift its position and agree on a new plan of action.

4. *Ask for agreement on several plans of action.* If it appears after trying the procedures in the first three suggestions that agreement cannot be reached, the group may be asked if they are willing to try the suggested plans of action, giving each an honest try in turn.
5. *Present as a new problem the failure to agree.* When group members are unwilling to agree on one or more plans of action the teacher can say that the group is faced with a new problem—the members cannot agree. The teacher may ask the group to suggest all the other possibilities that exist for solving the problem. If the children cannot think of alternatives, the teacher can assist them by suggesting that one possibility is selecting the plan of action least disliked. The teacher could make the decision. Or, the plan favored by the most children could be accepted and children who did not wish to cooperate could be excused.
6. *Withdraw the problem until the group wishes to reinstate it.* This may be a necessary procedure if some children continue to reject all plans except their own. Continued discussion in this case may cause the majority of group members to reject these individuals and split the group to the extent that group unity is seriously jeopardized.

These six procedures may be employed as the situation warrants; they are not necessarily sequential in nature. If it is very clear that a handful of individuals intends to obstruct group progress no matter what steps the teacher takes, it may be wise to move to point 6 immediately. A discussion in a group containing a few individuals who will not cooperate cannot be prolonged indefinitely. It is most important, however, for teachers to recognize that even though the solution to the problem cannot be agreed upon, the process itself helps the group members to both increase their problem-solving skills and develop more cooperative attitudes.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 17

I have in my sixth grade classroom a problem that thus far this year I have been unable to solve without resorting to outright direct orders, which is not good practice in a learning situation. It is difficult to sell democracy to a class when the teacher must be a dictator!

My group has resisted moving from place to place within

through participative methods may be initiated with a view toward using the procedures to increase group unity and cooperation. Often the major objective is to make a strong effort to give children responsibility and to provide the opportunity for every individual to have some say in his working arrangements, or to provide opportunities to improve interpersonal and intragroup relations.

Many times involving children in problem solving must be gradual. Drastic and sudden shifts toward shared responsibility can provoke skepticism or induce uncertainty and anxiety. When children have been conditioned to expect teachers to make all the decisions and when their conduct has been largely controlled by teacher- and school-made rules, they may interpret any sudden removal of emphasis on teacher authority as a sign of weakness on the part of the teacher.

Also, teachers must remember that children who have been denied involvement and influence in their working conditions and concerns important to them may at first lack the skills needed for participation and problem solving. Children will not develop these skills in a day. However, with help and instruction they will soon learn.

Because of these and other reasons it sometimes happens that groups cannot reach agreements in the problem-solving process. Groups may not be able to agree on the best way to solve a problem because it lacks skill, trust, or for other reasons. Sometimes children cannot agree on a course of action because of the nature of the problem, the way in which the problem is presented, or because of the set of conditions under which the group functions. Although these are important reasons why classroom groups sometimes fail to reach agreements in problem-solving sessions, it seems that the teacher must have the skill to deal with the classroom organization regardless of its nature and characteristics. This requires the development of teacher skills and techniques in problem solving that will meet group conditions as they exist.

To aid teachers in developing the skills necessary for handling situations in which class groups cannot reach agreements during the problem-solving process, the following procedures may be used.

1. *List the points of agreement.* When teachers list the points of agreement the process tends to show the group that they are not as far apart as it may seem. It helps children piece together the constructive elements of their positions.
2. *Summarize points of disagreement.* In listing and summarizing points of disagreement, the stumbling blocks are pinpointed, the problem is narrowed, and some dissenters may see the problem in a different light.
3. *Clarify points of view.* Give children who have been dissenting with the majority point of view the opportunity to explain their

we would do formal exercises in the room until the time came when they could be trusted to move through the halls as others did.

I know this was no solution since it threatened them, but what is the answer to this dilemma?

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL AND PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. What problem is central to the behavior of the students in this incident?

2. Did the teacher state the problem so as to stimulate interest? Did the teacher's approach arouse defensive reactions?

3. Do you believe it is possible to improve the behavior of these children through use of problem-solving techniques?

### Action Steps

1. The class should be divided for discussion into training groups of approximately five people.

2. The small training groups should each appoint a leader to guide the discussions.

3. After studying the incident for a few minutes, training-group members should analyze the situation and the methods used by the teacher in trying to convince the class members to solve the problem of how to act grown-up and yet behave in an appropriate manner.

4. Once the problems are isolated, the discussion should turn to improving the problem-solving methods used by the teacher. A detailed description of a more effective approach should be developed.

### Concluding Activities

1. After each group has reported its conclusions, members should then turn to an examination of the success of their groups in solving the training problems.

2. Using the rating form given below, each member should evaluate how well his training group performed during this training session.

### RATING FORM

Evaluate the functioning of your training group for this session by assigning your group a score on the 5-point scale. The highest score is 1. The lowest score is 5.

the school in an orderly manner. The members will not form lines and move quietly but instead engage in excessive conversation and general horseplay. We have discussed this in the classroom numerous times. The advantages of quiet, orderly lines in the corridors have been pointed out. This has been accepted by the group in discussion, but rejected in practice. The feeling of the whole group seems to be that since they have arrived at a time and place where they should be treated in most respects as young adults by their teacher, they are much too grown up to be marched around the school as the little kids are!

After a bad day when they took it upon themselves to really show-off to a fifth grade class which was waiting in the hall to go to the library as we were leaving our room to go to P. E., I marched them back into the room for a real problem-solving session. I told them when we reached some satisfactory solutions we would go back outside for our physical education class.

I began the discussion with a question. "How can we improve our conduct so that we can be good examples to the rest of the children who are younger than we are and 'look up' to sixth graders?"

I guess the way the problem was stated did not stimulate these children to work out any solution because only a few responded and all they had to contribute were the usual trite statements "Be quiet in lines," "Don't talk," and so forth.

Finally, I stated the problem by describing the situation and said it was a real problem because they were not acting grown-up at all. This had more effect because I also said, "Now either you can solve this or I will, and my way won't be pleasant!"

The feeling expressed by some members of the class seemed to be that the advantage of setting a good example was not as important as the maintenance of their status as sixth graders and as such very important people in the eyes of the younger children.

A few people disagreed and said they believed that they should do something about the way they behaved. When they were asked what could be done to maintain status and yet be a good example several good suggestions were offered, but a few hard-core individuals continually disagreed with what anyone said.

Finally, when the discussion degenerated into nothing more than bickering, I called a halt and told them to think the situation over and come up with a solution by the next day because until they did there would be no more play periods and

the teacher has relied on threat and force, or has tried ineffective interpersonal influence processes. In either case, unfavorable or hostile attitudes are produced. Such a class group must have opportunities to communicate and must be presented with decision-making and problem-solving activities to cope with its resentment, suspicion, and resistance.

The more unified the over-all classroom system and the better its functions, the greater will be the power of the class group to enable members to coordinate and use fully their skills, resources, and abilities.

Sometimes teachers inherit class groups that do not function fully. At other times a group with a cooperative orientation may find classroom conditions so poor that it cannot achieve integration and mutual cooperation.

Problem solving can be used as a starting point to help groups improve their interaction systems. When class group members together work out a solution to a problem of group living, opportunities are provided for the teacher to make favorable appraisals, the success usually improves group communication processes, and involvement in the process itself tends to reduce suspicion and distrust.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 18

This is a primary class. We have a teacher-aide all during the day. At times the children in this class display an inability to work together although otherwise they appear to be a friendly, happy group. Usually they have a most difficult time during the transitions from one activity to another. The worst time occurs just before it is time to eat lunch.

The difficulty results from their not cleaning up in preparation for lunch. This happens every day. They know that before they can sit down at the tables the room has to be clean. There is no cafeteria in our school and we eat in our rooms and use the work tables for lunch tables. Most often they refuse to help with the clean-up voluntarily, often claiming that they didn't use the materials or that it is someone else's mess so why should they help. What usually happens is that the aide and I spend fifteen minutes cleaning while the children sit and move around rather noisily supposedly looking at books on the library table and shelves in one corner of the room. Since the teachers are busy, the children are not closely supervised. They often get into fights. This creates many unpleasant feelings just before meal time.



- (a) Did the group leader make certain that the training problems were understood by everyone?

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- (b) Together did the group make an accurate analysis of the incident and define the problems?

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- (c) Were specific answers to the training problems given?

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- (d) Was free discussion encouraged and was each person allowed to contribute? Or did a few monopolize the discussion?

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

- (e) Did the solution agreed upon by training-group members specify some definite action?

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

When you have rated each item, add up the score. A score of 5 indicates that you believe your group functioned as well as was possible. If your score is between 15 and 20, the group could improve. If your score is more than 20, the training group has major problems.

3. The instructor will put the scores on the blackboard under each group's number. The group should then discuss what they can do to improve the training-group processes.

## USING PROBLEM SOLVING TO DEVELOP COOPERATION

Every classroom group is a human enterprise. The success and achievement of each individual member depends, to a large extent, upon the amount of unity and coordination that the group possesses. This is true partly because group members, if the internal state of the group does not function well, may devote a large amount of their energies attempting to make it function. Or, some groups seem to give up trying to achieve integration and harmony; the result is frequent conflicts between members which involves others in the group and, again, time and energy are diverted from the real work of the group.

A poorly functioning group usually has few action resources to carry out problem-solving processes. It also has less influence upon individual member behavior. Usually a poorly functioning group is the result of inappropriate management practices. Either

teachers and classroom groups are not within the province of the classroom group to solve. There are many, however, that the class can work out adequate solutions to and, by so doing, improve the learning situation.

Teachers plan and execute many necessary routine activities without involving the group. Many teachers who are considered highly competent reduce the necessary routine activities to automatism (probably because of the time factor). They do not wish to waste time by planning the details of room organization with the class. Some highly organized teachers may establish a deadening routine. On the other hand, some teachers do not organize details with a high enough degree of competency and some disorder results. It is easy for teachers to overlook involving the class groups in routine matters because they themselves are so taken up with important instructional procedures. Or it may be that some believe that the children in their class groups cannot or should not solve such problems.

The work environment in the classroom is improved when teachers see their children as possessing a real capacity for growth and development, for the acceptance of responsibility, and for creative problem solving. Such teachers regard the children in their classrooms as genuine assets capable of helping them fulfill some teaching responsibilities, and they are concerned with enabling the students to develop these capabilities. Such teachers will provide children with opportunities to develop problem-solving capabilities under their leadership. Children are utilized as resources to help solve organizational problems. Through use of group participation, teachers demonstrate their confidence in the children's abilities.

The types of routine problems that children may be involved in solving are

1. Various physical conditions within the classroom which relate to equipment and general appearance.
2. The storing, distribution, and collection of books and other materials.
3. The distribution and collection of class papers and supplies.
4. The problems related to showing films or moving to other rooms for special work.

Another type of problem which commonly occurs has to do with children in a group who are in the process of establishing shared norms and values. When the class group first forms, its members attempt to establish a commonality of expectations and values. Defining what is expected provides the group with the means to evaluate individual behavior, and it enables individuals to predict the group reaction to their behavior. Thus, members

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. The situation that is described in the incident appears to be one that has existed over a period of time. The disruption of class group behavior indicates that there are several problems with which the teacher must deal. The immediate problem involves clean-up before lunch. Can a problem-solving discussion be used to solve the clean-up difficulty?

2. That the group is not cooperative is very evident. What might the teacher expect from this group the first time problem-solving is initiated? Can the teacher plan so that some predictable reactions are avoided?

### Action Steps

1. The class should be divided for discussion into groups of approximately five people.

2. Each small training group should study the problem presented in the training incident. Following a study of the incident, group members should analyze the nature of the class group described. Is the group unified? Is it a lack of unity or resistance to the teacher that causes them to behave as they do?

3. Once the nature of the group is analyzed and the problems isolated, the groups should turn to the training problems. All groups will discuss the problem simultaneously and will be prepared to report after approximately thirty minutes.

### Concluding Activities

1. The teacher should prepare the blackboard showing two headings: Analysis of the Group and Suggested Actions, respectively.

2. As groups report, their conclusions will be summarized and placed in the appropriate columns.

3. After each group has reported its conclusions the total group should come to a decision as to which procedures are most likely to succeed.

## SOLVING A PROCEDURAL PROBLEM

The kinds of problems that lend themselves to group problem solving are many and varied. Some kinds of problems that beset

their minds, they become talkative. Because I must give my attention to the film, I grit my teeth and bear it. I'm still searching for an answer.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. The teacher has not been able to work out a satisfactory solution to problems relating to showing and viewing films. Although these problems are of more concern to the teacher than to the group, the problems make it impossible for the teacher to make full use of the potential capacities of the classroom group. How can the problems be presented to the group in a way that shows the teacher has confidence in the ability of the group to solve the problems and improve the situation?

2. How does the teacher carry through the problem-solving process so that individuals in the group can achieve a sense of recognition and personal worth because of the confidence shown in their integrity, ability, and willingness to solve these problems?

### Action Steps

1. Preparation for reality practice: The class is divided into two equal sections, A and B.

2. Each group should plan for reality practice by selecting a teacher to guide the problem-solving discussion. The remaining participants should volunteer to act as members of the classroom group while some people agree to serve as observers.

3. Approximately ten minutes is allowed for preparation by both groups before they begin the reality practice. When the instructor calls time the reality practice begins.

4. The person playing the part of the teacher leads the discussion by

1. Presenting the problem.
2. Stating the question in positive terms (rather than objecting to the way the children behave).
3. Presenting the facts in the case.
4. Encouraging proposals for solutions.
5. Keeping the discussion to the point.
6. Recording suggested solutions.
7. Seeing that the solutions specify actions.
8. Obtaining agreement to try one or more solutions.

feel more secure once these expectations are established. This attempt by the group to reach common values and common agreements results in discussion and argument until a consensus is obtained. Therefore, the class group often comes in from the playground discussing an issue. The discussion may be heated because the students do not see the situation in the same light and because they are attempting to find a common ground. Members argue and disagree, but the group is not in conflict; it is merely trying to develop norms for what is right and fair.

Another type of problem relates to playground organization. Teachers often work out a complete plan for play arrangements and tell the class group members what, where, and how they are to play. These highly organized plans may be resisted by members of the group because they are imposed upon the class. Usually class groups devote a good deal of energy working out their own play arrangements. Because of class sizes, classroom groups need considerable help in working out the interpersonal difficulties that arise in the attempts to establish common norms and agreements. Failure to resolve disagreements may affect the over-all psychological climate in the group. Effective teachers will facilitate the process of establishing playground norms by using problem-solving processes.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 19

The problem I have involves a great deal of unnecessary noise and commotions whenever I try to show a film to my class. Much of the difficulty is attributable to the physical setup of the classroom. I cannot change it permanently because when we have films we must move to another teacher's room.

When a film is shown, the students in row one have to move completely because they are sitting too close to see the screen comfortably. Even those in row two are really too close. All the students must move their chairs a quarter turn to the right in order to face the screen. They take too long for this shift; they make too much noise during the shift. They never completely settle down again unless the film is extremely interesting or unless I continually roam the room, breathing down their necks. This is a problem I have not been able to solve.

Rewinding a film is another problem. Occasionally I show two short related films. This necessitates about a five-minute break to rewind and then thread the next film. Even though the pupils have taken notes and I ask them to go over them, preparatory to writing them up, while the material is fresh in

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

## Training Problem

1. How can the teacher help a class to examine the dimensions of a problem? Are pupils aware of all of the dimensions to which they respond?

2. Does a precise description of the dimensions of a problem give clues that will aid in seeking a solution?

## Action Steps

1. The instructor will read the incident aloud to the whole group. It may be discussed for a few minutes.

2. The instructor explains that the group as a whole will examine the dimensions of the problem; that together they will describe the facts, or *what is* and *what is not* in the incident. Another way of expressing this is to say that they will collect the pertinent facts and the instructor will record them as the discussion proceeds.

The instructor then places the following framework on the chalkboard, leaving generous spaces in which to record responses.

## PROBLEM DIMENSIONS

PROBLEM DIMENSIONS		
	<i>Is</i>	<i>Is Not</i>
What		
When		
Where		
Extent		

### Concluding Activities

1. Following the reality practice, both sections can discuss the results in terms of the teacher's effective and less effective actions.
2. Consider the values involved in having groups solve this type of problem.

## SOLVING AN ENVIRONMENTAL PROBLEM

The training incident which follows describes a class that must work under less than satisfactory conditions because the classroom is situated so close to the playground. The situation does seem difficult to solve because nothing can be done about the room and changes cannot be made on the playground. However, the children may be better able to withstand the distractions if they are allowed to seek solutions. Perhaps the instructional program could be revised by the children so that classes requiring a quiet atmosphere could be matched with quiet times on the play yard.

In this case, and in other similar situations, teachers should be prepared to make suggestions to stimulate additional ideas. Even though the problem cannot be solved to the complete satisfaction of everyone, using the problem-solving process to help the class understand that the teacher recognizes the group's problem may help the group adapt to the situation.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 20

My fifth grade classroom is next to the school playground. I have trouble holding the attention of the children while there is any kind of activity going on outside. For several hours a day the playground is used by one class or another. I have big drapes that I can draw that would block out the activity outside, but this would also block out most of the natural light we need in the room. The noise is not enough to cause the continual distraction. Some persons might consider the behavior of the children in this class as a disciplinary problem. However, I believe it is a result only to the constant movement and activity outside the windows. The inattention to work affects achievement, and it seems a difficult problem to solve, particularly because the room cannot be changed and the play space at this school is small; all ground areas are needed to accommodate all the classes in the school.

causes and proposed actions. Each group as a whole is to report to the class.

### Concluding Activities

Each group reports its results on the following two questions: "What are the causes of the problem as based upon the facts, or specifications, of the problem?" and, "What action does your group recommend?"

The training questions are stated again as a means of evaluation.

## EFFECTS OF GROUP PROBLEMS ON INTERPERSONAL AND WORK RELATIONSHIPS

Classroom groups can have problems which, if not settled when they arise, may interfere with learning and instruction. Studies of groups in classroom situations show that tensions caused by the inability of group members to solve problems block the ability of individuals to perform learning tasks. Stresses and strains that arise because of unsolved group problems cause work stoppages. When problems arise in class groups, and when they remain unsolved, the social-emotional needs of members are affected and individuals are unable to direct their energies toward learning and reaching educational objectives. Usually the children direct most of their energy into trying to solve the problem instead of concentrating on lessons.

An unsolved problem, of course, often generates interpersonal hostilities. The class group, then, becomes involved in two types of problems, and the more energy group members spend upon interpersonal problems the less they have for school tasks. Sometimes schisms that create factions and nonproductive interaction develop. The importance of a teacher's using problem-solving practices which help groups to settle difficulties when they arise cannot be emphasized too forcefully; attempts to follow the usual learning program are wasted effort when individuals in the class are involved in trying to resolve a problem.

Much of the experimental research on problem solving in small groups is focused upon the planning processes. Planning operations involving information collection, proposals, acts of reasoning or critical thinking, and plans for action define the problem-solving process. Early stages are concerned with requesting, giving, repeating, and clarifying information. The next stage emphasizes seeking and giving opinions, analyses, and expression of feelings. The



The *Is* column should be placed on the chalkboard initially, as it will be the one to which attention is first given. If the instructor thinks the group will understand the direction of the discussion better by having the whole framework, he may show it at the beginning of the discussion.

The instructor says that the group is to fill out the "*Is*" column with those factors which are directly affected by the problem. This is done by describing precisely what "*Is*"; later in the discussion this will give clues to the cause or causes.

The first question is, "*What is the problem?*" The class, with the question in mind, should take a few minutes to reread the incident. The question is asked again, "*What is a fact in the problem?*"

The answer will include responses such as "*noise*," which will be recorded. To the answer that the noise is from the playground, the teacher holds to the dimension of *what*. He indicates that "*the playground*" indicates another fact or dimension. When all acceptable ideas of *what* the problem is have been written down, the teacher moves to the next question.

"*When is the (noise, etc.) a problem?*" Answers are recorded and the discussion is held to the dimensions.

The next question is *Where*. "*Where did the problem occur?*" The records are made in the same manner as for the first two dimensions.

Then the question is, "*What is the extent of the problem?*" or "*To what extent is it a problem?*"

The instructor summarizes the specifics of the statements in the first column as they were recorded.

Then the instructor explains that since they have gathered the facts that are directly affected by the problem, the group must obtain the facts that are *opposites*. In the *Is Not* column will be placed facts that are related to but not directly affected by the problem. Another way of saying this is that *what is* will be separated from *what is not*.

The instructor holds again to the dimensions and records all usable ideas in the *Is Not* column. "*What is not the problem but is related to it?*"

"*When is it not a problem?*" The answers will include such points as: "*The times the groups are not on the playground are quiet times.*" These can be specified, "*The first period in the morning*" or as other exact times.

The instructor or a group member summarizes the completed *Is Not* column.

Small groups are formed and leaders appointed. The assignment is to review the incident quickly and, using clues from the problem-dimension chart left on display, determine

During the election of the president the following week, Barry conducted the election. He counted the votes as the pupils raised their hands for their choice. I noticed that he did not count one child's raised hand. I called him over about this and he replied that Bob was voting for himself so it did not count.

Some children heard this discussion and a few said that the count was not fair, that each person had the right to vote for whomever he wished. Others joined in and the disturbance had to be stopped so the election could proceed.

Following the final count and the announcement of the new president, a few disgruntled members who were not allowed to vote for themselves claimed the election was unfair and that Lee, the new president, was not the popular choice. A discussion was held to settle the matter right there and then. The past president, Barry, argued that it was not right to vote for oneself. Lee agreed with him. It seemed that a large number of children agreed with them. A few independent souls who did not care what the group thought, claimed it was fair and that each person could vote for his choice even if he voted for himself. (This was the teacher's point of view, also.) Finally, after a good deal of arguing, time ran short. We concluded the discussion with the thought that each person could do as he wished. He could vote for himself if he wanted to do so.

A few days later our social studies committees were choosing (or electing) their chairmen. Heated arguments emitted from various groups about the vote count when someone voted for himself. The teacher was called to arbitrate in this matter.

How could I, as the teacher, have helped them settle this problem the first time it occurred?

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. How could the teacher have prevented the trouble that arose in the social studies committees?
2. The teacher attempted to solve the problem following the election. Should the teacher have intervened before the new president was chosen?
3. What could the teacher say and do to help the group solve the problem as to what was fair and right regarding voting for oneself?

final stage consists of asking for and giving suggestions and directions, agreeing upon a possible course of action, or making a final decision as to how members will proceed in the future.

In the next training incident it appears that the teacher did not follow any orderly process to help the group solve a voting problem. In fact, it appears that following the discussion which was marked by disagreements, the teacher solved the problem for the group and settled all disagreements.

Some group problems do involve conflicts in individual interests, but agreements can be reached in a great number of instances if the discussions are well conducted. When the problem-solving effort is directed toward the issue rather than toward how people feel about the situation, progress can be made. The discussion should engender trust and a feeling of solving a group rather than an individual problem. When the discussion takes this direction, conflicting personal interests take on a quite different meaning. To agree upon what is the best and most acceptable practice is quite different from deciding who is right and who is wrong. Solving the problem, then, involves examining what is right in terms of the class as a whole, making reasonable judgments, and deciding upon a conclusion that will determine future actions.

In conducting problem-solving sessions, teachers must develop problem solving and discussion-leadership skills that will meet group problems and conditions as they exist. If a problem is settled and solved at first encounter, the time required for future discussions of the same problem is reduced.

It appears that the teacher in the following incident did not help the group explore the situation in terms of actual practices in society at large. Possibly this occurred because the problem was not stated in positive terms nor in a way that directed the group toward exploration and analysis. Further, the teacher did not recognize his own attitudes and possible unwillingness to let the group solve its own problem if the final result did not agree with his idea as to the correct course of action.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 21

This year in forming the classes our principal kept each class as they were the year before with only a few individual changes. Therefore, my third grade class had an established hierarchy when they came to my room.

When the first election for the class president came along, a boy, Barry, who was a good citizen, a top student academically, and the most popular and well-liked individual in the room, was elected.

# 7

## CHANGING ESTABLISHED PATTERNS OF GROUP BEHAVIOR

### INTRODUCTION

When classroom groups must employ adaptive measures to reduce pressure or to make working conditions more satisfying, the effective functioning of the classroom system tends to decrease. This, in turn causes teachers to use more forceful control practices. The effect is cyclic and the situation never can be improved unless teachers employ techniques designed to create changes in the classroom system itself or changes in the patterns of adaptive behavior. Such changes are brought about by use of planned-change techniques that are very similar in their processes to group problem-solving methods. There is one important difference, however. Problem solving involves finding solutions to problems. In the planned-change process, the solution, end result, or goal is known. The objective is to encourage the group members to accept another goal, to explore ways of reaching the goal, and to achieve a state satisfactory to the group, and to the school and teacher. Members agree upon a plan of action, commit themselves to try the plan, and then execute it. Of course, the plan of action is followed up, evaluated, appraised, and changes are made when needed.

Many of the ideas relating to planned change stem from theories and experiments devised by Kurt Lewin.<sup>1</sup> In a series of experiments he utilized three interrelated propositions, namely:

1. It is usually easier to change individuals in a group than to change them separately.
2. The effects of change through groups is more permanent than if individuals are changed singly.
3. Change is more readily accepted if individuals participate in the decision to change.

---

<sup>1</sup> Kurt Lewin, "Group Decision and Social Change," in *Readings in Social Psychology*, Eleanor Maccoby, Theodore M. Newcomb, Eugene L. Hartley (eds.), New York: Henry Holt, 1958, pp. 197-211.

### Action Steps

1. The class will prepare for reality practice. About twelve people are needed for this problem. One person plays the part of the teacher, one person the part of Barry, and another plays Lee. The rest play the parts of the class members.
2. If space permits, chairs should be arranged to resemble a classroom. Following the selection of the teacher and the people playing the parts of Barry and Lee, the instructor will select nine or ten people to play the parts of other third grade class members. The rest of the class will be observers.
3. The persons performing in the reality practice should be given a few minutes to study the incident. Then the instructor calls the group to begin.
4. If the instructor feels it advisable to help the teacher out or to discuss a crucial aspect of the situation, he should feel free to interrupt and then ask the demonstrators to resume.

### Concluding Activities

1. Upon completion, the observers discuss the quality of the problem-solving process in terms of the training problems. Did the teacher succeed in helping the group solve the problem?
  2. The people playing the parts of other third graders should tell whether they felt satisfied with the solution.
- If time permits, the whole group can discuss the following general questions.
- (a) Did the teacher present the problem to the group in a way that stimulated problem-solving behavior?
  - (b) Did the teacher have the group analyze the problem in terms of real-life situations?
  - (c) Could changes have been made in the process that might have led to a more satisfactory outcome?

ing goals results in confused thinking when the effects of goals upon group behavior are considered. If more than one set of goals is operating in a class group situation, where do they originate? What factors influence their formation? An answer to the first question may be found by examining the purposes for which the class group is organized. The class group is a formal work group organized for a particular purpose. One set of goals originates from the fact that the class group is a group organized around certain prescribed goals. These goals, in turn, indicate that certain kinds of tasks and activities must be performed if the purposes for which the group is organized are to be achieved. In addition to the prescribed tasks and goals, the teacher has goals which may be directed toward achieving certain desired interaction patterns as well as to ways of achieving prescribed learning goals. A further source is the class group itself; it formulates goals that may be in accord or in conflict with the prescribed educational goals, depending upon the internal conditions within the group. Finally, each individual member of the group has his own needs, expectations, interests, and goals which influence goal formation and achievement in the classroom system.

These goals, all originating from different sources, may be very similar in nature and more or less integrated. Again, they may differ and yet be compatible; other times they may differ and be in conflict. In any case, many complexities are encountered when the goal behavior of the class group is analyzed because the goals motivating the class group may originate from a number of different sources; more than one set may be in operation; and they do not always intermesh or integrate.

One way that the various goals operating in the class group may be differentiated is by examining their sources. Another way is to note the factors which influence their formation. It appears that some goals may be traced to the purpose of the class group and to the teacher's goals for the group. Although these goals come from outside the group, they determine to some extent the kind of goals which the group will formulate. Also, the group goal-formation process is influenced by nontask goals of the group which stem from the internal conditions within the group and the goals of the individual members.

Whether the members of a group accept a goal and become task involved depends upon a number of inherent group characteristics as well as upon a number of outside factors which act to influence the group and to determine whether certain goals are accepted or not accepted. Also, once a goal is accepted by the group, the means of goal attainment involve a number of psychological processes.

The sources of goals, goal acceptance, and the processes of goal attainment are examined because all of these goal aspects are cru-

Although the processes of planned change discussed in this section are similar to those employed by Lewin and co-workers, the purpose differs. The purpose is not to change individuals, but to modify conditions in the classroom system so that the psychological work environment is such that members of the classroom group can achieve their goals best by directing their efforts toward achieving the desired behavioral goals of the school.

Various explanations have been given to explain why groups resist teachers' control efforts, why they fail to conform to standards, and why they sometimes become apathetic and indifferent, or hostile and aggressive. Another explanation is that when children are placed in the large school organization to work, study, and learn, security needs become dominant. They often learn early to fear arbitrary deprivation. They feel threatened or dependent and their greatest needs are for protection and security. Therefore, they band together and act collectively. Individualized techniques cannot be used to change collective action. Individuals cannot be changed singly and thus change the behavior of the group. The decision to change inappropriate behavior to that which is more appropriate must be made by group members acting together. Thus the use of the phrase *changing behavior* refers to changing the *collective actions* of children in classroom groups. It does not refer to changing the behavior of members of the class individually or singly.

Teachers have encountered the phrase *behavior is caused* many times in the course of their studies in teacher education. They know, also, that individuals have needs, and that these needs give rise to goal-seeking behavior. Just as individuals have needs, so do groups have them. The classroom system or organized group has a need for

1. Integration and cooperation.
2. Security.
3. Affiliation and status in the larger organization of the school.

These needs give rise to goal-seeking behavior in classroom groups. Any number of modes of response may be employed by a classroom group in an effort to satisfy group needs and reach certain goals.

One way of viewing the process of changing the collective actions of classroom groups is to perceive the process as one of substituting inappropriate goals for those which are more appropriate in that they satisfy both the needs of the classroom group and the goals of the school. Since several sets of goals may operate in the classroom simultaneously, it is useful to clarify the operation of multiple goals.

## THE OPERATION OF GOALS IN THE CLASSROOM GROUP

In every classroom group there are usually two or more sets of goals operating. Failure to account for the existence of these vary-

are encouraged to discuss and discover certain sentence characteristics for themselves. This is followed by more examples, and when it appears that the students have grasped the idea of sentence parts, the concept is summarized in a definition. Exercises are assigned to insure that the pupils have learned to recognize parts of a sentence. Later the work is checked to determine if the objective has been reached and if the desired behavior change has occurred.

The objective (or short-range goal) in this example is to enable the pupils in the class group to recognize and to identify parts of a sentence. The planned sequence of activities presumably leads to the achievement of this objective.

This example should make two points clear. One, the teacher, on the basis of an evaluation of the readiness of the pupils to learn, determines the immediate goal and the sequence of activities which presumably lead to the attainment of the goal. Two, the class group as a *whole* engages in some of the activities and later members work on individual task assignments.

This example may or may not be typical of the way class groups are directed toward attaining all of the educational goals; nevertheless, the procedural steps described are commonly employed to reach some kinds of objectives. How, then, do group goals fit into the picture?

It is important to distinguish between prescribed goals and tasks and the goals and activities which the group may formulate or select. Sometimes statements concerning classroom goals imply that class groups are free to develop their own goals. Such statements as the following are not uncommon in educational literature: "The goals of the group should be developed cooperatively and not imposed by the teacher," or, "The teacher does not come to the class group with goals crystallized; discover the goals the pupils have for themselves." The fact that the class group is formed for a specific purpose cannot be disregarded; therefore, the goals which the class group is capable of determining need to be distinguished from the goals which are required and determined by the teacher.

Most formal group organizations have written statements regarding group purposes and goals.<sup>2</sup> The classroom organizations also have written objectives or goals. These goals are prescribed by the state, by the community, and by educators. Often these goals are broadly conceived; in many instances the specific tasks or ways of reaching the goals are left to the teacher and the individual group. The fact cannot be ignored that class groups are organized for the

---

<sup>2</sup> Carroll L. Shartle, "Leadership and Executive Performance," *Personnel*, 25:370-380, March 1949.



cial to management practices. In fact, both group and individual goal orientation must be understood before a teacher can effectively influence either the class, a small work group, or an individual student, or successfully direct behavior toward the achievement of the goals of education.

*The Purpose of the Class Group.* In all established formalized work groups, the group goal formation and selection processes are influenced by the purposes for which the group is organized. Work groups of all kinds are organized to create some change which a single individual cannot bring about by his efforts alone. The reason for the group's existence specifies, either explicitly or implicitly, certain goals. Sometimes the group's purposes or goals clearly designate that specific kinds of tasks must be performed by the group in order for the group to fulfill its purpose. In other cases, the goals do not specifically indicate the kinds of tasks or activities which must be performed by members if the group is to achieve its purpose. Since the end purpose of classroom groups is to reach educational objectives that will ultimately produce changes in the group members themselves, the children engage in certain prescribed activities and designated tasks which are designed specifically to develop the skills and competencies needed by the citizens of a democratic society. Although there is not complete agreement as to how this is to be accomplished, there is agreement that achieving this major purpose involves the development of certain attitudes, understandings, and skills.

Specifically, an educational goal is a statement about some aspect of learning behavior to be acquired by a member of a class group. It is some end point that can be reached only by the performance of certain tasks and activities. It is the teacher's job to determine what tasks and activities will bring about the desired changes. Theoretically, because each child differs in certain abilities and in his readiness to perform certain tasks, the teacher plans a sequence of activities for individual children. However, because the specific objectives in one subject area alone are too numerous to list here, and because the teacher often has thirty or more individuals in the class group, many of the tasks and activities are planned for the group as a whole or for subgroups within the larger group. The process of placing an educational objective in a desired state requires a sequence of acts. The teacher may decide that the group can more effectively select their own activities, or the teacher alone may determine the activities and the sequence in which they are performed. A teacher decides, for example, that the pupils in the fifth grade class are ready to learn the parts of a sentence. The sequence of activities proceeds in this manner. The teacher presents illustrations to the class. The pupils

these goals are considered desirable by the children, or whether they formulate goals which conflict with the school goals, depends upon a number of factors such as the internal conditions in the group and the leadership practices employed. However, the goals prescribed for the class group do influence the selection of goals by the group, because the goals the group is encouraged to formulate are those which relate to the already prescribed objectives.

*Teachers' Goals.* The presence of more than one set of goals in the classroom often is overlooked by teachers. They are so concerned with determining the day-by-day objectives and with seeing that the children in the class perform certain prescribed learning tasks, that they fail to recognize the group may be trying to fulfill conflicting goals. Teachers, in these cases, would have difficulty getting group members to perform the tasks prescribed, and the result would be continual disruption of activities or poor task performance by class members.

Teachers recognize that their job is to see that the individuals in the group achieve the purpose for which the group is organized. Thus, one goal of teachers is to perform this job in the way they believe will achieve the best results. This major goal of each teacher, however, is personal.

Although the job of a teacher is to help each individual in the class group acquire certain skills and competencies, the teacher has personal goals which sometimes conflict with individual and group goals. A teacher may have motives, desires, aspirations, and emotional reactions which affect both individuals, the group as a whole, and the task behavior. When the teacher is unable to recognize the source of the difficulty, the group often attempts to solve the problem in its own way.

Goals of individual teachers, which may seriously affect group task behavior, may be ascribed to teachers who

1. Have all the answers and dictate to the group.
2. Have a great need to be accepted and liked by the class group.
3. Have need for the group to be dependent on them.
4. Want to use the class group to obtain power and position.
5. Need the group to make them feel secure and powerful.

Because most teachers, it is hoped, have well-balanced personalities, only occasionally do the needs and goals of individual teachers conflict with the needs and goals of individuals in the group. However, constant pressure upon teachers by the school and community can create teacher needs which are reflected in their behavior and in the behavior of their class groups.

Teachers' goals for the group, the kind of interaction pattern they desire, the procedures they use to guide groups and individuals

specific purpose of achieving the written goals or objectives which are set forth in courses of study. Although the needs of the children are considered in these goals, which are externally imposed upon the formal class group organization, specific classroom groups or individual members in the group are allowed little part in determining the goals. Goals which the class group *can* establish, in most cases, are those relating to the performance of some task or activity. The class group members, for example, can determine how they wish to accomplish certain tasks, or they can select certain activities which require the enactment of a certain routine. An example might be given as follows: A course of study lists as one objective, "to improve skill in business letter writing." Various activities which require letter writing are suggested. The class group may decide to take a field trip, and planning for the trip may be a group activity. The plans include writing business letters to a bus company, to the place or firm to be visited, and so forth. The operations required to accomplish the goal, i.e., taking a field trip, included business letter writing—a prescribed task, which, if performed in certain ways, can lead to the achievement of the predetermined goal. However, the class members in this case decide to whom and why they are to write letters.

Certainly many of the tasks and activities performed in the classroom involve only individuals and their own goals. For example, although grouped for reading, the individuals are not performing, in most cases, to achieve a group goal. (In some cases they may be working to achieve a group standard.) Each child in a reading group is working to achieve his own individual goal. The tasks of learning to spell a list of words, of writing a paper, and of memorizing new vocabulary words are all examples of individuals performing tasks which will create some change in the behavior of each individual. Usually the group as an entity does not write a paper or learn new vocabulary words.

Because it is sometimes difficult for teachers to induce some individuals to accept a prescribed goal and to perform the necessary tasks, at times the class group is guided toward accepting a goal which will necessitate the performance of certain tasks by members. The field trip, mentioned previously, is an example. If the group accepts this goal and decides, with guidance, that it will reach the goal by reading, formulating questions, writing letters, telephoning, and other tasks, the group will exert pressure on all members to aid in these tasks. However, it is neither possible nor sensible to attempt to attain all educational goals by use of a group process. Some work in the classroom is highly individual and involves only individuals and their own goals.

The children who comprise the class group membership know, in general, the purposes of the class group organization. Whether

attainment is the teacher's skill in helping the group members make an accurate analysis of the tasks required and the problems involved.

Teachers continually guide individuals and class groups toward instructional goals, and most teachers attempt to use teacher-group planning. However, before the group is engaged in a goal-planning activity, teachers should determine if the problem to be considered involves a group goal, or if what he really has in mind is the establishment of a behavioral norm. Teachers are likely to be unsuccessful in their attempts to influence if they believe they are directing the group toward goal attainment when actually they are attempting to establish a desired pattern of behavior. Planning for goal attainment and a discussion of *how pupils should act* in a situation are two separate problems. The differences should be clear. A group goal requires planning for task performance. *How* pupils shall act requires the establishment of a behavioral norm or standard. When teachers conduct discussions "to plan how the group will behave," usually questions or statements are made which evoke a series of responses from the children. These responses have been learned in previous situations and children know they will be received favorably by the teacher. Because the individuals in the group, either consciously or unconsciously, perceive that these responses are the answers desired by the teacher, a group discussion concerning *the best way to behave* is not successful in establishing a behavioral norm which the group will enforce.

*Teacher Goals vs. Group Goals.* Many times teachers are puzzled because children participate in what seems to be goal setting, and then a few, or perhaps many, do not live up to the agreements made. Because teacher education places great stress on setting cooperative goals and on group planning, teachers cannot understand why this planning fails.

One major cause for lack of follow-through on plans which apparently were agreed upon by group members stems from the fact that teachers do not clearly distinguish between group goal acceptance and the planning and establishment of behavioral standards which they themselves desired. Consider this incident, written by a teacher who believed she was using group planning to influence the members in the class to work on individual task assignments.

I have always believed that children should plan many of their own activities and that the planning should be the children's own and not the teacher's. It seems, though, that even when children set their own goals and do most of the planning, there are always a number who do not carry out the plans they have made themselves. A specific example of this occurred just recently.

toward the achievement of the prescribed goals, are all affected to a certain extent by their own personal needs and goals. Teachers' personal goals sometimes strongly influence nontask group goal formation in the classroom.

*Individual and Group Goals.* Each child has personal needs which create another set of goals in the class group. Because teachers are well informed in this area, it suffices merely to mention that individuals have personal goals which influence group goal formation. Thus, the prescribed goals of education, teacher goals, and individual goals all act as influences upon group goal formation.

The personal goals of individual members or of the teacher, or even other factors in the environment, may act as disruptive influences upon the group. Whether the process is called coordination of subparts, group maintenance, or working to achieve nontask goals, the activities of the group may be organized to achieve more satisfactory conditions. In other words, unstated goals may be formulated to direct the group's activities. If the group activities are directed toward achieving satisfying conditions within the group, task performance of members is impaired. Activities of group members will not be directed toward attaining educational goals. In some classroom groups these nonverbalized, nontask goals may be more dominant than the goals of learning, particularly if the activities and tasks are imposed upon individuals and if the group has not been involved in some common tasks that provide opportunities for group interaction and morale building.

*Processes of Goal Attainment.* A group goal is defined as some end point or preferred state which the group strongly desires to attain and which can be reached by the performance of a certain sequence of behaviors. When the sequence of behaviors is conceptualized as a path which leads to the end point or goal, it is possible to visualize the goal as having a number of alternative paths leading to it. Goal attainment, then, requires that the group not only accept the goal but also decide on the path which will be taken to reach the goal. This means that the group members seem to agree on the tasks which members will perform and the sequence in which they will be performed. The way in which the planning is conducted and how the decisions are reached, of course, have considerable influence on whether the tasks are carried out and whether the goal is reached. The group must select appropriate tasks, combine them in the proper sequence, and perform them effectively. The processes by which a class group attains a goal depends upon individual behavior in selecting, judging, planning, and acting. In order to select the right path, the members of the group must analyze the situation. Therefore, most important to class group goal

discussions. Because the neighboring room was to be used to prepare for these panels, the difficulties involved in the change would require analysis. It seems quite likely that the question of how to behave would not have to be discussed if the group members accepted the goal, established the need for performing certain tasks, and recognized the problems involved in moving and working in unfamiliar surroundings. Or, it is quite possible that if the teacher had discussed the problems involved in moving to another room and had asked the children to decide how they could best deal with a lack of work materials and so forth, the outcome would indicate what was expected in the way of behavior.

An experiment which attempted to determine the relative effectiveness of task- and nontask-oriented groups in producing personality and behavior changes found that task-group members changed significantly more than the discussion-group members on such variables as leadership initiative, aiding in attainment of group goals, and general adjustment.<sup>3</sup> The experimenters concluded that the task groups were able to focus their energy on discussing the task and thereby achieved successful group experiences. The groups free to discuss whatever the members wished, on the other hand, had to spend energy on problems of group organization and member motivation and consequently did not achieve satisfactory group experiences—nor did the discussion produce changes in behavior.

In the case of the group which had to change rooms, the class was not engaged in free discussion; however, neither was the group task oriented. Observation of classroom groups seems to indicate that if positive or work-oriented behavior is desired, it is important for the group to have a goal that requires well-defined tasks. The group will be more likely to enact behavior which is desirable because the members wish to attain the desired goal and, therefore, they will direct their energies to performing the needed tasks. When an assigned activity such as preparing a book report is made relevant to the group, i.e., it is viewed as aiding the group in attaining some goal, it is more often accepted by an individual as a task to be performed than one that is merely assigned to each individual by the teacher. Also, an individual is more apt to work harder on such an assigned task than he will if it is nonrelevant to the group.

*Determining If the Goal Is Operational.* Before action is taken by the group, the teacher must help it determine whether the goal is operational. The final acceptance of the goal should depend upon

---

<sup>3</sup> John H. Mann and Carola Honroth Mann, "The Importance of a Group Task in Producing Group-Member Personality and Behavior Changes," *Human Relations*, 12:75-80, February 1959.

Our room is the only one in this section of the school that has black-out curtains so that films can be shown. The other classes have to go to the auditorium when they use films. However, the upper grades are practicing a program so the auditorium, at present, is in continuous use. The neighboring class had a series of films they wished to view, so they asked us if we would change rooms with them once a week during their film period so they could see these films.

We talked this over in class and my fourth grade enthusiastically agreed to let the other class use our room. After more discussion, the class agreed to use the period in the other room to read library books or write book reports. Everyone seemed to approve of the idea. It was all talked over thoroughly.

We tried out the plan for the first time this week. In spite of the time we spent planning, many of the children spent the period talking to neighbors, looking around the room, and in doing most everything but reading or preparing book reports. Even though the children planned that they would read, and so forth, they did not carry out their plan or live up to the agreement. It became necessary for me to resort to dictating so that the period would not be entirely wasted.

Group planning to achieve some goal can be accomplished successfully only if an operational goal requires the performance of certain tasks. Group planning should involve a discussion of alternate plans, a decision as to which path to take and what tasks to perform, and the sequence involved. In the case just cited, a group goal was not involved; consequently no series of tasks or activities required group planning.

Most likely the children in this group clearly perceived that their individual assignments were to read or make book reports. The teacher believed that group discussion and agreement would keep the pupils busily working on their tasks and thus prevent undesirable behavior. The group discussion process, or the practice of talking over what is desirable in the way of individual behavior, is not an effective practice to use for establishing a working pattern.

In the previous incident the teacher did not set up a problem situation that required planning. Having a problem to solve or a decision to make is the meaningful part of a discussion. If the teacher had actually encouraged the group to establish a goal relating to reading, the results might have been different. For example, if the group members had decided they wished to present their book reports orally in the form of a panel discussion such as is sometimes done on television, the group could have planned what tasks were required of each individual in order to present the panel

whether the group has the means to attain the goal, and it is the teacher's responsibility to help the group decide whether it is possible to achieve the outcomes that are desired. The next incident is an example of how one teacher helped a class to examine the practicality of a goal.

This class was studying the universe and at this particular time the study was concentrated upon the constellations. One morning just before class started, Caroline announced that she had a marvelous idea that just could not wait until science period to be told. Caroline was a highly intelligent and creative girl who was continually thinking up group projects. She was always bubbling with enthusiasm and energy which was very contagious. The group always seemed to catch Caroline's tremendous enthusiasm and this morning was no different from other similar occasions.

This was Caroline's idea. She thought the class should cover the ceiling of the room with paper. The constellations in their current positions could then be drawn on the paper and the class could learn to recognize them more easily because their relationship to one another could be more easily discerned. The class response was immediate, fervid acceptance. Caroline always had this effect upon the class. Plans were practically in progress before the teacher could intercept.

Now the teacher did not want to put a damper on the group's enthusiasm because this might cause the group to lose interest in this aspect of science. However, she had pictures in her mind of a sagging ceiling, and paper descending and covering the class. Also, she immediately thought of the regulations forbidding the use of tape and thumbtacks on the plaster.

Before plans could actually take shape the teacher asked to be heard. The project was in no way rejected but instead was accepted with as much enthusiasm as the teacher could muster. Then the teacher told the class that before committees were assigned, it was necessary to consider all aspects of the idea. The group agreed. However, the teacher had to ask a number of questions before the children realized there were difficulties involved. Finally, several problems were listed on the board. How would the paper be fastened to the ceiling? How would the problem of lighting be handled? How would fire hazards be avoided? Would the constellations be drawn before or after the paper was on the ceiling?

When no one could come up with an idea of how to attach the paper to the ceiling and still remain within school regulations, enthusiasm for the idea began to fade. Even Caroline



whether the group has the means to attain the goal, and it is the teacher's responsibility to help the group decide whether it is possible to achieve the outcomes that are desired. The next incident is an example of how one teacher helped a class to examine the practicality of a goal.

This class was studying the universe and at this particular time the study was concentrated upon the constellations.

One morning just before class started, Caroline announced that she had a marvelous idea that just could not wait until science period to be told. Caroline was a highly intelligent and creative girl who was continually thinking up group projects. She was always bubbling with enthusiasm and energy which was very contagious. The group always seemed to catch Caroline's tremendous enthusiasm and this morning was no different from other similar occasions.

This was Caroline's idea. She thought the class should cover the ceiling of the room with paper. The constellations in their current positions could then be drawn on the paper and the class could learn to recognize them more easily because their relationship to one another could be more easily discerned.

The class response was immediate, fervid acceptance. Caroline always had this effect upon the class. Plans were practically in progress before the teacher could intercept.

Now the teacher did not want to put a damper on the group's enthusiasm because this might cause the group to lose interest in this aspect of science. However, she had pictures in her mind of a sagging ceiling, and paper descending and covering the class. Also, she immediately thought of the regulations forbidding the use of tape and thumbtacks on the plaster.

Before plans could actually take shape the teacher asked to be heard. The project was in no way rejected but instead was accepted with as much enthusiasm as the teacher could muster. Then the teacher told the class that before committees were assigned, it was necessary to consider all aspects of the idea. The group agreed. However, the teacher had to ask a number of questions before the children realized there were difficulties involved. Finally, several problems were listed on the board. How would the paper be fastened to the ceiling? How would the problem of lighting be handled? How would fire hazards be avoided? Would the constellations be drawn before or after the paper was on the ceiling?

When no one could come up with an idea of how to attach the paper to the ceiling and still remain within school regulations, enthusiasm for the idea began to fade. Even Caroline

An analysis of the goal behavior of classroom groups provides another important source of information which contributes to the teachers' understanding of classroom group behavior. Teachers act daily to give their groups unity of purpose in achieving prescribed goals. They have to guide groups in tasks which will prepare them to achieve these goals. To accomplish this teachers must have a certain understanding regarding the place of goals and how they determine group behavior. Research in group behavior presents some empirical evidence relevant to certain aspects of group behavior in connection with group goals. The following statements briefly summarize some of the findings.

Research shows that two or more sets of goals can be in operation in formal group organizations and that these various sets of goals can operate in harmony or in conflict. When members have satisfying relations, i.e., opportunity to interact, release tensions, form friendships, gain prestige and recognition, the formal and informal structures are more able to work together in harmony to achieve task goals. Groups with satisfying relations are generally cohesive, and it has been shown that cohesive groups exert a great influence upon members to accept common task goals and to perform group functions leading to goal attainment.

Investigations reveal that any goals accepted by members of a group consciously or unconsciously induce motivational forces upon members, and the magnitude of the influence varies among goals and among members. When most of the group members are not committed to the same goal, continuous friction in working procedures results because subgroup structures committed to different goals induce disintegrating forces in the total group structure. Also, when group goals are not fully accepted, the goals of the group have little power to influence the behavior of members and there is very little group task-oriented behavior.

The leadership pattern employed either facilitates or hinders the setting up of group task goals. When task goals are imposed groups show little initiative to start or continue work unless the leader is present. If the leadership pattern does not provide opportunity for the groups to achieve satisfactory relations, the motivation to achieve satisfying group relations is sometimes more powerful than the motivation to perform certain group tasks. The research shows, also, that when members in groups work individually in competitive situations toward a common goal they are less task directed toward the goal than members who work together in cooperative groups.

The research, as well as classroom observation, seems to indicate that if certain behavior is desired in a particular situation, task-oriented groups will produce more change in the direction of the desired behavior than will groups which are nontask oriented. Individuals are more apt to work zealously on assigned tasks if they

perceive that the performance of the tasks leads to a goal desired by the group than if the task performance leads only to the attainment of goals desired by the teacher for each individual.

Since it is the teacher's job to guide class groups and individuals in tasks which will make them better able to achieve educational goals, he must

1. Clearly perceive the prescribed task goals.
2. See that group goals, individual goals, and educational goals are not in conflict.
3. Guide the groups and individuals in tasks which lead toward the prescribed goals.
4. Help to mobilize the energies of group members behind group tasks and activities.

## CHANGING ESTABLISHED PATTERNS OF GROUP BEHAVIOR

When class groups are deprived of a need or blocked in reaching a goal, patterns of undesirable behavior often result. The goal of the group may be to integrate and develop a satisfying functioning system. Communication may be restricted too severely for the group to develop satisfying working relationships. Whatever the cause, when a group is blocked and prevented from achieving a desired state of affairs, frustration results. Various patterns of behavior develop and usually continue even though the sources of frustration are removed. For example, a pattern of inappropriate behavior may develop in the classroom which leads teachers to recognize that a status hierarchy imposed on the class has made it impossible for the group to satisfy affiliation needs, or teachers may see that the group has been given too little opportunity to interact. Removing the cause of the inappropriate behavior usually will not change the pattern which has developed. In fact, it is possible for teachers to inherit a class which has developed an inappropriate behavior pattern, the cause of which no longer exists. Usually the patterns of behavior that become an established way of reacting can be classified as antagonistic, hostile, aggressive, apathetic, or indifferent.

A very early study of classroom group behavior made by Cunningham<sup>8</sup> found that some of the most puzzling group reactions were those that took the form of hostility, withdrawal, enthusiasm, and contagion. In this study it was found that one of the difficulties in

---

<sup>8</sup> Ruth Cunningham and Associates, *Understanding Group Behavior of Boys and Girls*, New York: Teachers' College, Columbia Univ., 1931. pp. 224-231.

tracing causes of hostility was that there was often little or no relationship between the cause of the hostility reaction and the persons against whom hostility was shown. Hostility was said to be a reaction to thwarting, in most cases, although the venting of hostility was often quite irrational. Thwarting, or frustration, was also thought to be a cause for group apathy and withdrawal. Some class groups, it was found, habitually reacted to thwarting with hostility whereas other groups habitually withdrew; some groups exhibited the two reactions alternately. The explanation was advanced that perhaps withdrawal indicated that the group accepted the futility of the situation and, therefore, expended no energy in hostility, or that withdrawal was a waiting period before hostility emerged.

Analysis of incidents of group behavior reported by teachers reveals that the largest number reported describe groups that approved the misbehavior of individuals who played the roles of clown or rebel. Or, groups, by displacing hostility, make scapegoats of some individuals. Some groups develop their own standards for behaving, thereby resisting all efforts made by teachers to convince them to behave in more appropriate ways. At times groups respond with imitative or contagious behavior, although this type of reaction seldom develops into an established pattern of behavior.

Teachers cannot hope to change an established way of acting by use of fear, force, threat, appeal, or persuasion. When such practices are used and appear to be effective, it means only that the surface behavior has changed. These methods serve only as temporary measures for eliminating undesirable behavior, and another form of undesirable behavior is usually substituted in place of the one eliminated. These inappropriate control measures are suppressing actions. Appropriate control measures involve helping the group to accept new goals and a new pattern of behavior for reaching these goals. When a new goal dominates group members' perceptions, the collective action and conduct of the class organization is influenced.

Cartwright<sup>9</sup> presents some basic principles and propositions relating to changing behavior in groups. One principle states that "pressure for changes in the group can be established by creating a shared perception by members of the need for change." The most important phase is establishing a shared perception that change is desirable.

The patterns of behavior that groups establish and continue to enact most frequently are general in nature. For example, they

---

<sup>9</sup> Dorwin Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People: Some Applications of Group Dynamics Theory," in *Current Perspectives in Social Psychology*, E. P. Hollander and R. G. Hunt, (eds.) New York, Oxford, 1967, pp. 520-529.

occur in situations with already established standards for behaving. Instead of responding appropriately, the group reacts in a noisy, talkative, and disorderly manner. These situations may occur when

1. Entering or leaving room.
2. Preparing for or changing activities.
3. Passing or caring for work materials.
4. Correcting papers.
5. Working in ability groups such as reading.
6. Engaging in committee work.
7. Completing study assignments.
8. Receiving study assignments.
9. Going to or remaining in the auditorium or cafeteria.
10. Preparing for art, music, dancing, and so forth.

An established pattern of such behavior is very difficult to change unless the individuals in the class perceive that the others are acceptive of new ways of behaving and acting. This same perception induces individuals to continue behaving in undesirable and inappropriate ways. Undoubtedly, a number of individuals in the class prefer to find a way of acting that is more accepted and approved, but singly they perceive that the group as a whole has accepted the pattern as the best way of behaving in certain particular situations. Many times, of course, the behavior arises from discontent and dissatisfaction and represents a form of resistance. In either case, children in the class know what is generally sanctioned and what is not.

## PHASES OF CHANGING AN ESTABLISHED PATTERN OF BEHAVIOR

In most cases in order to change behavior that has become a firmly established pattern, the group must be led from the beginning toward a distinctly outlined objective. The group is not guided in a discussion of desirable ways of behaving or in deciding what is right or best; instead, the behavior desired is clearly defined, outlined, and presented to the group.

The procedure followed to bring about changes in group behavior is often presented as a series of phases. Lippitt, Watson, and Wesley,<sup>10</sup> for example, outline a set of practices to be followed

---

<sup>10</sup> Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson, and Bruce Wesley, *Planned Change: A Comparative Study of Principles and Techniques*, New York: Harcourt, 1958.

when change is planned in groups. Although not designed for classroom use, the steps in the procedure are somewhat similar to those which have been suggested for problem-solving situations. The steps include

1. A clarification of the problem and an explanation of the necessity for change.
2. A development of the need for change.
3. An examination of alternative behavior.
4. An establishment of goals or intentions of action.
5. The transformation of intentions into actual change effort.

If the change to be made is very great, it is suggested that only small changes be made at one time. After these changes are established, the group can be led to the next change and on to higher and higher levels of desired behavior.

For teacher use, a planned-change technique can be divided into the following general areas.

1. Studying the situation.
2. Preparing the proposal.
3. Presenting the proposal to the group.
4. Guiding group discussion.
5. Forming a consensus to act.

An adaptation of these procedures for classroom use may be summarized as

1. Presenting the need for change.
2. Clarifying the nature of the change.
3. Creating a desire for change.
4. Exploring alternative behavior.
5. Establishing a line of action.
6. Making a decision to act, which is perceived by group members as a consensus and a commitment to act.

An important aspect of the process is guiding the group in developing a plan of action. Although this part of the procedure does not in itself bring about a change in group behavior, the planning process provides the means by which members' perceptions are changed. Sometimes teachers believe it is the discussion which is the important part of the method. Although it is important, the discussion process in itself does not bring about change. Research studies have provided some clues as to what actually occurs in groups when a planned-change process is used.

To determine the factors most helpful in creating change, Bennett<sup>11</sup> assessed the contribution of four variables: group discussion,

---

<sup>11</sup> Edith Becker Bennett, "Discussion, Decision, Commitment, and Consensus in 'Group Decision,'" *Human Relations*, 8:251-273, 1955.

group decision, group commitment, and the degree of consensus. It was found that group discussion, as an influence technique, was no more effective an inducement to action than was a lecture. The factor of making a commitment to try a change plan was found not to be an essential element in itself. However, a combination of the process of making a decision, and the degree to which members perceived that there was consensus regarding the fact that a change was needed and desirable were found to be the important variables which contributed to success. In other words, a high degree of actual or perceived group consensus and agreement among children regarding intention to act raises the probability that individual members of a class group will execute an action desired by the teacher. This study and others seem to indicate that discussion, as an influence technique, is no more effective in inducing action than is a lecture. Group discussion, per se, does not serve to heighten the probability of action. However, an attempt to influence the group coupled with a request for a decision or a commitment and a large proportion of class members indicating that a change seems desirable is perceived by class members as consensus. Once the group members perceive a high degree of consensus, there is a strong probability that the children will carry out the action they say they will perform.

Although it is not claimed that the phases of the plan necessarily progress in the orderly sequential pattern presented below, they are helpful in separating and classifying the specific facilitative techniques teachers will use in trying to change an established pattern of behavior.

### PHASES OF THE CHANGE PROCESS

- Phase 1 The nature of the problem is clearly and objectively presented.
- Phase 2 The class group is helped to discover that change is desirable. Problem awareness is aroused. The teacher may point out that different behavior will improve some situations, raise group prestige, make some situations more satisfactory, and so forth.
- Phase 3 The behavior to be changed is identified and clarified, and the behavior change is distinctly and objectively outlined.
- Phase 4 The goals and intentions are established as an end point. The class is led in a discussion as to how the project can be reached. (It is in this phase that members' perceptions begin to change. As suggestions are made as to ways the desired behavioral goal may be reached, individuals perceive that the objective is acceptable to members of the group.)

- Phase 5** A plan is agreed upon to *try* in the actual situation. (A consensus is reached by children that they will put the plan into action. A commitment is made to try the plan.)
- Phase 6** The plan or agreed-upon practice is tried. Change is attempted in the real situation.
- Phase 7** The change is generalized or stabilized by leading the group members to make appraisals of their changed behavior: where was it good, where do we need to work, and so forth, which is continued until their behavior has reached desired level.

Teachers who are faced with the problem of changing an inappropriate pattern of behavior to one that is more appropriate must plan carefully what they will say and do at each step in the process. What is said and done depends somewhat on the characteristics of the group and on the nature of the behavior to be changed. In actuality, although teachers should plan the presentation of the change problem with great care and be prepared for each progressive stage, teachers' contributions will be regulated to a great extent by the progressive responses of children in the group.

Before a plan is initiated for changing the behavior of a classroom group, teachers should consider some basic propositions stemming from research that have implications for creating change.

1. Unity, cohesiveness, and satisfaction with the group is an important factor influencing the willingness of a group to change its behavior.
  - (a) It has been found repeatedly that the more cohesive the group is, the greater the readiness of members to attempt to influence others to make desired changes in behavior.
  - (b) The more satisfied individuals are with their group, and the more attractive it is, the more influence the group can exert to make desired changes.
2. In attempts to change a certain specific type of behavior, the more relevant the new type of behavior is to the attractiveness of the group, the greater will be the influence in the group to change.
  - (a) This means that the change the teacher desires must be made attractive to the group, i.e., it must be perceived by the group as adding to the status of the group.
  - (b) If the group members feel their class is considered "inferior" or "not so good" by the teacher, then children in these low-rated groups lose some (or much) of their self-confidence and personal esteem.
  - (c) Down-graded groups (groups which have not had positive appraisals) or those groups which perceive themselves as such, contain disappointed and frustrated children. These children often



reject behavior patterns which conform to what the teacher and school desire.

3. Change in an established pattern of behavior cannot be brought about by trying to influence popular group leaders.
  - (a) Considerable evidence has been accumulated through research showing the tremendous pressures which groups can exert upon members to conform to the group's standard way of behaving.
  - (b) The price of deviation in most groups is rejection or even expulsion. If the child really wants to belong and be accepted, he cannot withstand this type of pressure. He will "go along" with the group even though he suffers teacher disapproval.
  - (c) Evidence has been obtained that shows that popular boys exhibit greater resistance against influence directed against the existing group's way of behaving than do less popular boys.
  - (d) Individually powerful children, when introduced into earlier formed groups, are unable to abolish or run counter to group standards or ways of behaving that have already been established.
  - (e) Evidence indicates that once a group establishes its own pattern for behaving in a particular situation, status individuals or popular or powerful individuals will be more conforming to this pattern. Therefore, methods which attempt to change group behavior through popular persons are completely ineffective.
4. The patterns of control used daily with the children in the classroom are an important factor relating to success in creating change.
  - (a) If authoritarian practices have been the general rule, then a switch to participative practices will be suspected by the group.
  - (b) If communication in the class has been severely curtailed, or if a status hierarchy has been imposed and maintained in the group, any planned change in behavior will be extremely difficult to execute.
  - (c) If pupil leaders have been appointed to maintain controls, group cooperation undoubtedly is low and change in behavior will be difficult to achieve.

## CLARIFYING SPECIFIC TECHNIQUES

The process of creating a change in the behavior of a classroom group can, perhaps, be clarified by using an incident of actual behavior as an example and by presenting an illustration of a class discussion meeting in which an attempt at change was conducted unsuccessfully.

A teacher reported the following incident.

We have a departmentalized organization in our elementary school, and I have a homeroom composed of thirty-five pupils, both boys and girls. This particular homeroom is a mixed structure group ranging from grades 4-6. In our homeroom we have tried through the years to establish an atmosphere of friendliness and a sense of belonging for all of our pupils. Whenever any newcomers (fourth graders or new pupils) arrive for the first time, they are introduced to the group and guides are assigned to them to assist in their orientation to the school.

Both boys and girls in the past years have seated themselves in rows of seats according to grade levels. For example, all sixth grade boys and girls sat together at the same table (we meet in the cafeteria) and the other grade levels did the same. This year, however, a strange thing happened. All boys sat on one side of the room and girls on the other side. Boys and girls were completely divided. This is the first time this has happened in the three years that this homeroom has been together.

After the first week a number of the children were dissatisfied and wanted to change seats, but there were those who would not budge. They said they liked it the way it was. How do you satisfy everyone in a case like this?

The teacher called a class meeting to try to seek an objective solution to the problem. However, the teacher not only presented the problem, but gave some solutions at the opening phase of the discussion. Resistance was evoked immediately. The teacher then resorted to moral exhortation. Because of the beginning statements made by the teacher, the attempted change was not successful.

## CLASS MEETING TO DISCUSS A PROBLEM

*Teacher:* Our class meeting is called today to decide about changing our seats. Some of the members of our class have asked if we can change seats and sit at different tables. They believe they would not be disturbed so much by changing for reading, spelling, and math groups. They think it would be better if we divide by grades. We could have the fourth grade—boys and girls—sit here (points to middle table). The fifth grade here (points) and the sixth here (points to another table). We don't *have* to sit at the tables as we are now. We *can* change, if we want to.

*Jim (sixth grader):* It's all right the way it is.

*Other boys:* Yeah!

*David (sixth grader):* Some people are always wanting things changed. Just when it is going o.k.

*John (fifth grader):* We want to stay where we are.

*Marty (fourth grader):* We like it here.

*Teacher:* I know you (speaking to the boys' half of the room) like it where you are, but others want to change the seating. Do you think it's fair not to let them? Of course, we don't have to change—it's up to you—my other classes always sat by grade and did *not* separate into boys and girls. But, of course, we don't always have to do the same thing.

*Students:* (Exchange glances and some shrug their shoulders. Others look at the teacher without expression on their faces and without moving.)

*Teacher:* (Looks at the girls frequently, but also watches the boys.) I know it is a new idea to some of you and it is not easy to give in and change something we like, is it? But we *do* want to be fair—and consider other people's ideas and what they want, too.

*Susie (a cheerful and intrepid fourth grader):* Everyone here is nice and—(Teacher interrupts smoothly).

*Teacher:* Let's just *think* a minute. Let's not say anything for a while and just quietly think about it. Some of you don't really think you would like to change seats, and some would. Some would like to have their class sit together. Just what would be the fair thing to do—fair to everyone?

*Miriam:* (In a quiet and reasonable tone.) I don't care where I sit. If most people want to change and think it would help us to work better, I would be willing and probably some of the rest of the kids don't care either. When should we do it?

*Teacher (smiling):* There's one person who wants to consider what is best for everyone and is open-minded. A good citizen must cooperate. Sometimes we have what we want and others cooperate, and sometimes we go along with others and are cooperative about what they want.

*Maxine:* I think the same as Miriam said.

*Jim (turning on Maxine):* Good for you!

*John (stage whisper derisively):* Yeah, cooperate.

*Alma (sixth grader):* Well, we've been sitting this way a long time now and it is only fair to try the other way and I, for one, want to!

*Jean:* Yes! So we will not have to move to the reading circle so much, and have people going past every time you just get started to work.

*Patty:* We won't have to get up and move around so much if you come to our table—and to the others—for their spelling and things. When I was in Lincoln School, we did it like that and it was great.

*David (to the room in general):* Why didn't you choose seats like that in September, if you wanted to and you didn't, so—Too bad!

*I like it the way it is. No changes!* (Most boys nod or agree—some girls agree and some disagree.)

*Teacher:* Now you have some very good ideas about the advantages and disadvantages. But (turning to David) are you thinking of yourself and not of others, of what you like or of what would be best for everyone?

*Bob:* They had a chance to choose—you don't just do it over and over and over.

*Teacher:* (Ignores this.) You say that you can work better when there is less moving around to get into groups—which we *do* have to do a lot—and it would be nice to let others have the seating arranged as they want it. It would be a change, too, and not the same as it has been. You do want to give others their choice of seating, don't you?

*Tom:* Well—you can make us move if you want to. *You're* the teacher and teachers make the rules. This is getting us nowhere—nobody listens. You just tell us what to do and we'll do it.

*Teacher:* Thomas, that isn't quite right. I'm a member of this class, too, as you are. When we have a class meeting, we want everyone's ideas. No one has all the good ideas. Sometimes we take my ideas and sometimes those of other people. We want to keep in mind that it is the idea that is best that we want to choose and not whose idea it is.

*Sally (brightly):* I've been wondering if we could keep our same seats, but have all the sixth grade girls sit together and the fifth grade and the fourth—and have the boys do the same—it would be sort of like—(lost in unclear explanation).

*Teacher (ignores the suggestion):* The problem of changing our seats and tables is really yours to decide and I'm just trying to state the questions to help out. I just don't think that you are thinking very well today.

*Jim:* I know what I want and I think we should vote. *I like it the way it is.*

*Teacher:* We won't talk about it anymore now but will wait until tomorrow. You think about it—what would be best for everyone and giving others their choice. Then I'm sure you will know what is a good decision and the right thing to do.

At the opening of the meeting to discuss a problem, the teacher presented the topic for discussion but without clearly and objectively stating the nature of the problem. Some indication is given that the teacher tried to show why change was desirable, but again, this was not stated objectively. A change practice must direct the attention of the group toward considering another goal, i.e., way of behaving, because there are advantages for all. If the change is not a move to improve conditions for the whole group, then it should not be attempted at all.

## DEVELOPING THE NEED TO CHANGE

Before teachers can begin the process of changing an unsatisfactory, inappropriate way of behaving to one that is more satisfying and appropriate they should analyze the situation and answer such questions as

1. Is the group unified and cooperative?
2. What is the nature of the behavior to be changed?
3. Can the cause of the trouble be determined?

Usually the behavior pattern is clear-cut. It may involve ways of working, ways of moving about the school, ways of handling materials, and the like. In the analysis phase, however, teachers should make an honest appraisal of the problem as well as of themselves. They should think through the situation and determine whether change is needed because present group reactions are inappropriate and reduce the group's effectiveness in reaching educational goals, or whether the situation is merely unsatisfactory to them personally. The objectives must be clear to teachers themselves when the initiating phase begins, or they will be unable to make them clear to the group. If teachers attempt to change a pattern of group behavior only because they desire the change and wish to control the situation, this desire to manipulate will be transmitted to the class and will affect the change processes. Clearly, it is most important that teachers make certain that any change undertaken will make working conditions more satisfying for all concerned, and that any contemplated change is one that will enable individuals to work and achieve more effectively.

In analyzing the situation, teachers should think through difficulties that may arise. Some individuals in class groups react predictably to many teacher-initiated actions. Appropriate teacher responses to these reactions may be thought through so that none of the anticipated difficulties will catch the teacher unaware. Anticipation of a disturbing reaction on the part of individual children can help teachers conduct the discussions with assurance and self-confidence. Teachers must remain as objective as possible and avoid any emotional reactions to the change process.

Before they initiate a discussion on the need to change with the class group, teachers must have clearly in mind what it is the group is changing to, that is, the objective. Because the process is being conducted to change a pattern of inappropriate behavior to one which is more appropriate and satisfying, the appropriate behavior or goal must be stated in terms of a distinctly outlined objective. This phase of the procedure can be clarified by use of an illustration.

A teacher reported that after play period the class group members lined up to get drinks before they proceeded to the classroom. The behavior in the lines was not desirable. Their shoving, pushing, and "playing around" usually led to arguments or conflict. The analysis made by the teacher was to the effect that the lines should be more orderly and thereby decrease the possibility that tempers would shorten and conflict ensue.

If the problem is analyzed carefully, it is not one of establishing more orderly lines. The real problem is how to shorten the length of time the children must stand waiting until they can get a drink. Unless a change process is employed, however, the same pattern could easily continue even though the waiting was shortened considerably. No effective change can be made unless the problem is diagnosed correctly. Nothing is gained by finding the correct solution to the wrong problem. Also, if the problem is diagnosed incorrectly, determination of the objective is difficult. In the illustration the teacher evidently desired to change disorderly lines to more orderly ones. Nothing much would be achieved by this change. Although a change was needed, in this case it could only be brought about by a correct analysis of the situation.

## INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 22

At the first of school, upon entering the classroom the children were very talkative and several roamed around and visited. This behavior usually occurred only after recess and lunch.

After certain firm steps were taken the children now line up outside and remain there until all is quiet. At this time we march quietly into the room and take our seats. On the board there is usually a question, a humorous arithmetic problem, or a fun problem. Those that get the correct answer get one point. The child with the most points on Friday at 3:15 gets a prize, usually a bar of candy or a ball point pen.

Although the confusion upon entering has been taken care of and this problem no longer exists, another one has popped up. It concerns the monitor duties. We have a class president and officers whose jobs are to appoint new monitors to take care of supplies, clean-up, and all the rest. Everyone has a turn. Whenever a time comes that monitors must do their particular monitor job, the whole class breaks loose. The room becomes noisy. Everyone seems to be shuffling in their desks or trying to find a lost pencil. The trouble is, no one is doing anything so far out of line that it can be pinpointed. It just seems that this occurs at the moments the monitors go into

action. It doesn't matter who the monitors are either. This nonworking disturbance continues for as long as there is one monitor still working. The talking has been kept at a minimum, but still you could not call the situation orderly. Nothing that has been tried or threatened has helped to change the situation.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. The problem is to investigate all possible ways of presenting the need to change in the incident.
2. Each group is to prepare a skeletal discussion outline which sets forth the major steps in developing the need to change. Keep in mind that the teacher must present the facts and the change objective, as well as help the group deliberate how the change may be effected.

### Action Steps

1. The class should divide into small groups of approximately five persons for discussion and training.
2. Each group should study the training problem and plan ways the need for change might be developed.
3. All groups will discuss the problem simultaneously and be prepared to report in approximately twenty or twenty-five minutes.

### Concluding Activities

1. The class reassembles and makes reports.
2. Similarities and differences in reports should be noted.
3. General conclusions regarding the method of handling the problems should be formulated and discussed.

## COMMUNICATING THE PROBLEM

The actual process of developing a concept of the need for change with the class group involves a statement of the problem to heighten awareness of the difficulty. Because it is likely that many times previously the teacher has made the group aware of his sensitivity to the problem, a statement and approach must be found that will evoke a similar awareness in the group. The teacher can tell the class very objectively how its behavior appears to others, or how it appears to some members of the class group (if the teacher knows

this to be true). Of course, the anonymity of anyone who might have expressed a wish for a change in class behavior will be preserved. Because the purpose is to substitute one pattern of behavior for another, initial emphasis on the change process is placed upon the type of behavior that a change is to accomplish. Teachers should avoid questions such as "What is a better way of behaving?" Instead, the behavior desired is clearly outlined.

Included in the initiating process are statements which make it clear that it is the task of the group to solve the problem of how to reach the desired objective or behavior change, and that solving the problem will entail a carefully thought out plan of action.

In most cases if the need for change is presented so that the group is actually made aware of the need for change, most class groups will respond positively. The reason is that when groups are asked to consider a change in behavior the majority of the children will welcome the opportunity to assume some responsibility for their behavior. Children enjoy being asked to consider such a proposal. It satisfies ego needs. Of course, some individuals may not respond favorably to requests for change, but if the group is cohesive and if these children desire group approval, group pressure will influence them in most cases. Persons who do not accept the idea that children want to be considered "good," or those who believe that children must be made to conform, of course, will be unsuccessful in changing behavior because they will not have faith that children can plan ways to make needed changes. Children can detect such attitudes even when they are unspoken.

Initiating the change process, then, deals with analyzing the problem, stating the problem so that awareness is evoked, making the objective clear, and clarifying the group's task in the process. The complete initiating procedure covers the first three phases of the change process. Phase four which involves initiating action is considered in the next section.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 23

A. The class in question is a self-contained eighth grade class in a K-eight school, located in a low economic area. The neighborhood is made up of Mexican families, some Oriental families, and a few very poor Caucasian families. Out of the thirty-eight students in the class only two come from normal, happy homes of any race because many parents are alcoholics or the home is broken up, and, in far too many cases, both. Because of home conditions most of the students in this class receive free lunches in the cafeteria each day. Only eight go home for lunch.



It is this lunch situation that causes all the trouble. Because they are eighth graders, their turn in the cafeteria comes at fifteen minutes after twelve. The few who do go home for lunch leave on the hour. The fifteen minute waiting period is supposed to be spent in free reading time or used to complete unfinished work. We have discussed how this period should be used many times. The decision of what to do was made by the class.

This isn't what occurs, however. The same thing happens day after day. A little before twelve the whole class begins to buzz. It's hard to keep any kind of order until the eight are dismissed to go home. Then the remaining people talk, move around, sometimes scuffle in a friendly way, toss erasers back and forth in a game of catch, or sometimes go to windows and yell out at anyone who might be passing by.

There is a reasonable amount of order maintained in the class during the regular working hours. It is only at this time that things are in complete bedlam. Of course this kind of disorder cannot be allowed, so strong actions have to be taken to return the situation to normal. No matter what punishment is given or threatened, the same thing occurs the following day.

B. Recently many children have forgotten or ignored class rules. Both boys and girls cannot enter or leave the room without poking or jostling each person they meet along the way. The children are frequently out of their seats and disturb others, and during class discussions they are very discourteous to one another.

After a week or two of this, I began new disciplinary measures. For a few days the class behavior was better. However, within a short time I found I was not achieving the desired results. I found the same pattern of behavior occurring, and there was increased animosity among the children and toward me. I saw this expressed both in the classroom and on the playground.

After the children returned from lunch one day, they were very noisy and discourteous. Finally, when they settled down, I asked them what they thought about our class behavior. Because they knew how I felt, the discussion that followed was not as free as it might have been. However, after one or two of the class leaders said they did not think our group acted like grown-up fifth graders, the class discussion began to pick up. They decided how they *should* act, particularly in relation to coming in and leaving the room. The whole situation seemed settled. But now, after a few days' time, they are be-

having just as they did before except, perhaps, even more time is wasted before they really decide to settle down and begin to work.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. The change problem must be identified and the statement or question formulated. State the problem in terms of the scope and focus of the discussion which is planned. A statement or question of fact sets sharp limits to the discussion that is to follow.

2. In communicating the problem the teacher seeks to involve the group in a change action. Therefore, statements and/or questions must be such that they involve the group and do not make the members feel guilty or reprimanded for their behavior.

### Action Steps

1. The class is divided into two training groups numbered 1 and 2. group 1 completes the training problem using incident A; group 2 completes the training problem for incident B.

2. If the groups are too large, they may subdivide to enable each member to participate.

3. Each group will work on problem formulation, paying close attention to the phrasing which serves as the basis for the change actions.

### Concluding Activities

1. Leaders of groups 1 and 2 should report their group's conclusions by demonstrating the opening statements and problem formulation.

2. The large group reports back the extent to which each problem statement directed them to consider a change in behavior and a willingness to adopt a plan for changing.

## INITIATING ACTION

The task of assisting the class group to take a course of action follows the phases which develop an awareness of the problem situation and establish the change objectives. The method of initiating a plan of action may be accomplished by questions or by statements

that focus on possible ways of reaching the desired objectives. Opening statements should be suggestive not final. They should be phrased in a way that allows the group to assume responsibility for what is to follow. If questions are used to open the action phase, they should be phrased to stimulate participation and to assist class members in contributing ideas.

Unless a teacher can adequately facilitate communication in the group, it is doubtful that an established pattern of behavior can be changed. Adequate communication is fundamental to the planned change process because in order to achieve change each person in the group must perceive that the majority of the group members desire to establish a new pattern of behaving. The essence of communication in this process is to open the communication channels so that individual members will express their ideas and feelings freely. The group members need to know how others in the group react to the proposal for changing behavior. The group discussion must be guided and directed, in so far as it is possible, so that each individual who desires has an opportunity to express his viewpoint. The discussion must be guided to allow group members to express their ideas and yet not seem to be in opposition to the group as a whole. Children who do not volunteer may be invited to contribute so that group members can become aware of the reactions of the majority.

Objectivity on the part of the teacher is absolutely essential in conducting a discussion which is directed toward changing the behavior of individuals in groups. Unless the teacher's manner and statements are objective, ideas and feelings cannot be disseminated and evaluated by group members and they will have nothing to convert into a basis for decision. A change in tone, a pitch of the voice, a facial expression, or emphasis placed on part of a question or statement may indicate clearly the teacher's opinion or reaction to the group. Or, a teacher may indicate by these nonverbal means whether he accepts or rejects a child's contribution. The procedures, of course, are adapted by each teacher to suit his own mannerisms and personality. Teachers should communicate to the group in their own way. In following the phases of planned-change, teachers do not need to become alike; the phases are only a means which give teachers more chances of success to bring about change than they would have otherwise.

Initiating an action plan means that once the behavior pattern to be changed is presented to the group and the nature of the desired change has been made clear, the next step is to invite ideas and suggestions as to how the change can be effected. The children are asked to develop a plan of action that will lead to the change in behavior desired. These first few moments in the initiating action phase are extremely important because what the teacher does at

this point will set a pattern for the group. As will be shown in the next section, this is not the only phase in which the teacher must initiate action. From time to time the group may tend to wander from the main point. The teacher must be ready to bring the discussion back to the problem at hand. Or, if the children seem hesitant in suggesting ideas, the teacher may need to suggest some possible courses of action that will help to arouse ideas.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 24

This class is a fourth and fifth grade combination. The behavior that sorely needs to be changed does not happen in the room. It occurs whenever the class must leave the room and, of course, is worse whenever the teacher cannot be with them. At these times this class engages in all types of disorderly behavior. Some people step in and out of lines. There is loud laughing, talking, and sometimes even occasional whistling. Smarty remarks are made that everyone who can hear find extremely amusing whether they are or not.

The worst incidents of this type of behavior occur when the class has a library period twice a week. A teacher-librarian is supposed to be in charge but I must go with this class each time to keep some kind of order. The class has assignments and the rules for library behavior are very clear and everyone knows them. But this class goes through a regular routine every Monday and Friday. It starts off in the hall on the way to the library. Seats are assigned at tables, but still there is a scramble. Then complaints begin that some people are in the wrong seats or they don't like where they are sitting.

Once when the librarian was attempting to explain a reference process, a low drumming began. It was done by a shuffling and tapping of feet and it was very hard to tell who was causing the disturbance.

Depriving the children of the library period has no effect. This has been done and no one seemed to care. It had no effect because when they were allowed to go back the same sort of behavior continued as usual.

### INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

#### Training Problem

1. To analyze the situation described by the teacher in this incident, the training groups will prepare scenes for role play-

ing. One situation takes place in the library. The other occurs after the children have returned to the room following a display of difficult behavior in the library. The third scene is played to show how a change action might be initiated by a teacher who is knowledgeable about creating changes in behavior.

2. The problem for the first two groups is to predict the actions of the teacher in the incident and dramatize them for group analysis. The problem of the third group is to show a good way of initiating action for change.

#### Action Steps

1. Divide the class into three groups numbered 1, 2, and 3. Each group will select one member to play the role of teacher.
2. Each group should adjust the length of the scene to cover approximately one third of the time available thereby providing time for others to make their presentations.
3. About ten minutes should be spent by each group in planning their presentation.

#### Concluding Activity

As each group presents its scene, the others will act as observers. They will analyze the needs of both the teacher and the class groups in each case and, as time permits, decide how the change process might be handled in this incident.

## PUTTING PLANS INTO OPERATION

Developing an awareness of a need for change, communicating the problem, clarifying objectives (the nature of the change), initiating action, and guiding the discussion during the planning are important phases of the process. They are preliminary to the operational phase in which the plans are put into action.

After a plan of action is agreed upon, members of the group are asked to commit themselves to trying the proposed change. This is one way of dealing with hidden resistance. The class members are committed to *trial* rather than to the actual change itself and are not asked to make a final commitment but only to experiment with a new way of behaving. Usually, the group, if it has in reality developed a plan of action, shows little resistance. Resistance is encountered when some members of the group stand to lose something when a change takes place. In most instances if the change in behavior is justified, no one in the group is deprived; the change

should be advantageous to all. Resistance by a few, if it does occur, usually stems from the reality of the teacher's power. If students feel that force is being imposed, the teacher's perceived power may be a source of resistance.

For training purposes the emphasis has been placed on how-to-do-it techniques. However, these practices are not as important as the orientation of teachers to what it is they are trying to do. Any proposed change of behavior must be advantageous to the group in some way. Teachers will benefit more from understanding what it is that they are trying to do than from learning the phases and steps in the change process. To illustrate the importance of this role-definition problem, an example illustrating a power approach to change is cited. Although the teacher did not use power directly, she did use persuasion and subtle threat. Also, there is no evidence that the behavior needed to be changed to facilitate group operations. It appears to be a change that the teacher alone felt was desirable.

Since last September our fifth-grade class has been a homogeneous class group. It consists of eleven boys and fourteen girls from high ability to low ability. Nine of these students came from another school in our district and three came from out of town. They appear to be a generally cooperative group and they seem to like one another. They interact well under the conditions that exist. The students refer to the class as "our class" in the majority of activities they engage in together. With the exception of reading and arithmetic classes, which are departmentalized, the students are together most of the school time.

The problem behavior I decided needed changing was a tendency to be noisy in the halls going to and from our classroom. This behavior was not much of a problem but it seemed that it might erupt into one in the future as there was a tendency for voices to get louder than necessary at some times.

A chance came to initiate the change soon after I decided to try and see what could be done. The class was in the midst of oral reading and discussion during the history period when we were disturbed by talking and noisy footsteps from another class as they were leaving the auditorium. Our classroom doors were open at the time. Another class was passing through the hall, and there was much noise. As a result I walked over to close one door. A student volunteered to shut the other door. The children remarked about the conduct of the class who passed by, saying "Wow, what elephants! It sounds as if the elephants are at war—better get a box of

cotton. What are they trying to do—attract attention or make us deaf?"

After we all laughed about the noise, I thought that this would be a good time to bring up our behavior in the halls as we go to and from the auditorium and the cafeteria. My students, too, were beginning to exercise their vocal cords and make too much noise, although to a lesser degree than the other class was doing.

To approach the subject being discussed I asked the question, "I wonder what we sound like going down the halls?" Several hands were raised. The responses went like this: "Oh, we could never sound like that. I think we sometimes talk while we are in line. We don't talk as loudly as Moishe (a fellow classmate) sings."

I wrote the words talking and singing on the board, as it was clear the students perceived the problem. I believe at this time they perceived the problem by hearing the other class; and by making them think through the problem, they related the behavior of the other class to their own behavior. Thus by desiring a change, they would try to improve.

A discussion came about as to why we should or should not talk in the hallway, to which one student said, "... because the office is so close." Another one said, "Well, the principal, office secretary, and nurse are working, and other noises outside would disturb them." Another comment was, "Other classes are working as we were before the noise interrupted the studying."

I decided to use a change technique by an indirect approach. The discussion went somewhat as follows:

Teacher: What should be a way to eliminate this confusion?

Students: We just won't talk in the halls.

(I jotted down "No hall talking" on the board.)

Student: The noise of the feet sound as bad as the talking.

("Walk softly" was written on the board.)

Student: We should think of others who are studying and be considerate.

("Be considerate" was added to the list.)

We tried to examine all possible ways to solve the problem of reducing noise, but no other ideas were offered. We then discussed the suggestions as ways to eliminate noise in the halls. The group unanimously agreed to try to follow their own suggestions.

The following day the students were in two rows to go to

the auditorium for square dancing. With only a reminder of our previous discussion the students went to and from the auditorium in a quiet, orderly fashion.

*Evaluation:* I remarked to the students, upon their return, how great their suggestions for good behavior proved to be.

Believing our problem was solved, not much thought was given to the subject after this until James and Herbert returned to school after a week's absence. As our class was leaving the auditorium after another assembly, James was sliding his feet and singing. Several boys and two girls told James to be quiet and to stop spoiling everything. James looked bewildered and said, "I didn't do anything." In the meantime, Herbert's behavior was the same as the others in the class. Both boys were unaware of our previous discussion.

Upon returning to the classroom, remarks were being made to James. We had a discussion and evaluation to brief James and Herbert on our problem and commitment. At first James felt he was totally innocent, but his classmates seemed to have changed his attitude by their remarks, thus making James feel, too, that these plans were made for the good of all.

Several points stand out in this experiment to change the behavior of a class group. Had the change problem been one needed to facilitate the group, the timing of the initiation was propitious. However, the teacher did not develop an awareness of need. It seems evident that the responses given were those the group perceived the teacher desired. The objective or desired change was never clarified. No plan was developed as a means of reaching agreed upon objectives, and although the teacher felt the class discussion improved behavior, a reminder was given to the class which would act as a form of unspoken threat. The surface behavior was controlled in the direction the teacher desired but no change was accomplished. Quite possibly this class did develop some problem behaviors that were never traced by the teacher to the influence method used to control talking in the halls.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 25

The problem I have trouble with happens when we shift classes from one subject to another.

This fourth grade class is made up of children ranging from low ability to low average. Mostly they are slow-learners. The other two fourth grades are made up of middle- and



high-ability children. At first the children in this fourth grade were not very happy about the class, the teacher, or one another. Occasionally, you could hear remarks referring to the class as a bunch of dummies. The children seem more satisfied now that school has been in session for two and one-half months. Only when an argument breaks out on the playground and is carried back into the room does anyone bring up the fact that the class and everyone in it is dumb.

On the whole, the class is well behaved except for when we must change subjects and seats for a new lesson. The same behavior occurs day after day. Instead of putting away their work and getting ready for the next lesson, the children allow the whole situation to fall apart. There is talking, fooling around, chairs tip over, and everyone acts as if he cannot hear a word the teacher says. This goes on sometimes for as long as fifteen minutes, although usually by threats, punishments, and so forth, it is stopped before it has continued much beyond five minutes. We have set standards and discussed the situation. Everyone agrees that the behavior is not right. They all promise to do better and then the same thing happens again.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. It is useful for training-group members to improve their skills in handling behaviors that need changing by experiencing the situation directly. The problem for training is for training groups to go through a beginning session of planned change.

2. The persons playing the parts of members of the class group should note how the teacher's statements affect them and be prepared to report during the concluding activities.

### Action Steps

1. Preparation for putting plans into action.
  - (a) The class will divide into two sections.
  - (b) Members of each section will study the assigned incident. A plan of teacher action is agreed upon. Each small group section selects an individual to play the role of the teacher. Others in the group take the parts of the class group members. The time of preparation, approximately ten to fifteen minutes.

2. Each training section presents the plan of action to the class as a whole. The action begins when the teacher presents the need for change to the group.

3. Persons playing the part of children in the class should respond to the teacher in terms of how the teacher's statements affect them. The purpose of acting out the situation is to improve teacher-group interaction skills.

### CONCLUDING ACTIVITIES

1. Following presentation of the change plan, the observers will analyze the class reactions to the teacher's approach to the problem.

2. Decisions are made as to whether the persons playing the parts of the teachers in each case succeeded, or if the practices employed created new problems.

3. The group decides where improvements could be made in terms of teacher-initiated actions as well as responses.

## GUIDING THE CHANGE ACTION

In guiding the discussion which develops the action plan, certain practices can be employed by the teacher which will expedite and simplify the total process.

Suggestions from the children about how the change in behavior can be accomplished are written on the board. This practice facilitates the whole process in a number of ways. When a suggestion is written on the board, the teacher does not have to make a comment in all cases. The fact that the suggestion is written on the board is an act of acceptance and the group usually perceives it as such. When an individual's suggestion is written on the board for all to consider, it seems to stimulate others to make contributions. Perhaps the various suggestions arouse other ideas. Organizing the ideas on the board has another value. Objections to an idea often have a positive aspect because the discussion can be guided toward a solution by putting the positive aspects on the board as well as the objections. When all the suggestions are on the board repetition will not occur and the process of selection and elimination of ideas is hastened. The discarded ideas can be erased leaving only those which are to be incorporated in the final decision.

Recording and organizing the thoughts and conceptions regarding the change in behavior requires skill, but the most difficult aspect of this procedure is to condense the statements into short phrases. While the teacher is writing an individual's comment on the board, he should repeat it so that everyone can hear as well as

see the phrase. Sometimes the teacher may rephrase the comment and say, "Is this what you mean?" Although the words recorded often do not summarize the main idea, experience has shown that a phrase, or sometimes only one word, is sufficient for the group members to recall what was said. Experience has revealed, also, that if the group members are hesitant about expressing their beliefs or their proposals, the simple tactic of placing an individual's initials after his suggestion sometimes evokes further suggestions from other members in the group.

Sufficient time should be allotted for the discussion. Because school time is well regulated, it is important that the discussion not be interrupted by a recess period or by some other fixed break which would cause it to be hurried or terminated before the decision has been firmly established.

Because the purpose of the discussion is to get members eventually to agree to try a plan of action, the final steps the teacher takes are to coordinate, harmonize, and ask the individuals in the group if they accept the final decision. It must be remembered that the decision comes from the group as a whole, and the final outcome is agreement on how the group as a whole is going to act in the change situation.

In the final steps the teacher pulls the various ideas together and relates them to one another. All the ideas agreed upon are harmonized into a final statement representing the decision. The group is asked to comment on the final decision—is it acceptable? Are all the ideas included? Is the class as a whole satisfied? Finally, the various members of the group are asked if they are willing to act according to the agreement. The final statement can be an announcement that all have agreed to the proposal for change and of the time that the first evaluation session will be held.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 26

I have thirty first grade boys and girls—the slow group of the school. Many of these children come from Mexican, Portuguese, and Japanese homes.

I have never wanted my school room to be a place governed by rigid rules but instead a workshop for learning and enjoying—a place where children can forget some of the frustrations and the tensions of their home life, for many of these children do have home problems. I especially feel that these children need the freedom of informality and also the freedom to move about, as no child wants rules staring him in the face wherever he turns. Perhaps I have tried to give them too much freedom, hence my problem!

At our school we have very little space in the cafeteria; therefore the lunch is sent to the lower grade rooms in paper bags from the cafeteria kitchen. This creates a problem because three children go for the lunches and two go for the milk.

At the same time everything must be put into their desks as we use the tables for serving and eating. When the material is put away, then these thirty children have to wash their hands at the sink.

During all this there is confusion because it seems as if these children can't control their movements and voices. They are at a high pitch trying to get all these things done in the allotted time.

While all this is going on, several come with their stories of "Daddy did this today," and so forth. This, too, no doubt is my fault, as I have felt these children need to have an outlet for some of their feelings.

If they do get their hands washed and are back in their seats ready to be served their lunch, we have the problem of more noise, as they still want to talk (not only to the ones at their tables but also to me). There is no need to say anything but that I do have a problem.

One day just before we began to get ready for lunch I told the children that I needed their help. They were all eager to learn how they could help me. Then I said, "I wonder how we could get ready for lunch without making so much noise." Immediately the hands began to go up as each one wanted to be the first one to give his suggestion.

This is the way their answers went. I wrote them on the board as they gave them to me (only a few are listed).

*Rosa:* Clean our desks by putting everything away when the signal is given to get ready for lunch.

*Shugo:* Everyone clear off the desks before we begin to wash.

*Pietro:* Don't talk while putting things away.

*Tammy:* No talking when we are in line.

*Angelica:* We could whisper instead of talking out.

*Dan:* We could talk softly.

There was no agreement that there should be no talking during the clean-up period. Most felt that the talking should be limited, and done softly. Angelica and a few others demonstrated what talking softly meant.

The agreement reached was: Clean desks before washing and all talking during clean-up and lunch was to be done in a soft voice. All agreed they would do this.

They began to clean up, get the lunches and milk, and to stand in line to wash. What a change in those children that day! By the time they were seated and their lunches were being served, some fell back into the old habit of loud talking.

Then I heard someone say, "Not so loud." It seems as if that didn't quiet them enough. The next thing I noticed was this: the president of the room had gone to the board and had pointed to the sentence that said, "Talk softly."

When he did that, the group began to talk softly and much to my surprise for a week now, the group has been much quieter. Every day before the children begin to get ready for lunch one child always points to the "Talk softly" on the board.

A few of the children have trouble remembering, and I realize I will have to have patience as children need time to make the change. But students like it when the teacher talks things over with them and keeps asking them how things are going day after day.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. The incident cited is a clear example of an ineffective attempt to initiate and guide change in a class organization, even though the results were perceived by the teacher as a big improvement. Decide how the problem could be presented more clearly and effectively in the situation.

2. By defining and limiting the problem the discussion can be directed toward an analysis of the situation, thereby avoiding the stereotyped responses cited in the incident. Decide upon statements which may avoid this difficulty.

3. Because the children's responses appear to reflect ideas that the children believe the teacher desires, the teacher may ask the children to examine their solutions in terms of time and so forth, and thus direct the thinking toward an actual clear-cut plan of action. How can this be done without giving the impression that their solutions have been rejected?

### Action Steps

1. The class divides into groups of four to six members.
2. For ten to fifteen minutes of the training period individual members of the small groups work on the training problems just presented.
3. Following the time period set, individual members try

out their solutions on their group members. One person should be selected to distribute the time allotments so that each person has the opportunity to hear the group's reactions to his statements.

### Concluding Activities

1. When the class reconvenes the members can analyze the problems encountered when they tried to improve each participant's communication skills by using the small training groups as a sounding board.

2. The instructor notes suggestions and assists the group in arriving at solutions if any are needed. These solutions can be incorporated in future training exercises involving individual study and performance.

### Comments

Discussion in the small groups requires a good deal of cooperation. Correcting, prompting, and provoking one another to new and better performance, and responding freely to such stimulation is an essential part of training exercises.

## STABILIZING THE CHANGED BEHAVIOR

Developing a new way of acting is the ultimate goal of the change process. The main test of the process, however, is whether the class group is satisfied with the change and whether the change in behavior remains stabilized. The process must make it possible for the class to carry on after the initial change project is over.

A most crucial part of the facilitative process is to stabilize the changed behavior. There is a tendency for groups to step back into previous ways of behaving unless favorable appraisals are made of group effort and unless the class group is provided the opportunity of evaluating the new behavior. Much effort and time are wasted upon the change process if teachers do not carry on follow-up activities. It is not enough to help the group change an undesirable pattern of behavior to a more appropriate way of acting. Teachers must employ some guidance techniques to stabilize the change efforts.

In addition to favorable evaluation of both the group's planning ability and its efforts in carrying out plans, teachers must provide for evaluation sessions. This evaluation procedure can act to freeze or maintain the behavior at the new level, or it may serve to move the behavior further in the desired direction. In either case, the technique involves analyzing the changes that have occurred. The steps in evaluation can proceed somewhat as follows.

1. The group is asked to consider whether the decision to change behavior succeeded.
2. In terms of the total effect, was the change effective? Were the desired results achieved? In what ways might the change be improved? Are the results satisfactory?
3. Are further changes desirable? What changes are needed? Any new changes must be clearly stated in terms of actual behavior and must be understood by all.
4. Does everyone agree to the new changes?
5. If some improvements are desired, the class agrees to try to improve its plan of action and the improved plan is given a trial.

This part of the process is of utmost importance for several reasons. For one thing, the group, after a period of time, may slip back to the previous way of behaving. This evaluation session serves to "freeze" or clinch the decision. Moreover, it is not often that the desired change is achieved with one group discussion period. If the process is completely successful and the desired change is achieved, the members of the group will gain enormous satisfaction from evaluating their success. Teachers will also share the group's feeling of success. Group unity is heightened further by the fact that class members recognize that the teacher is proud and pleased with what they have accomplished. For all these reasons, the evaluation sessions are equally as important as the first sessions and should be planned and conducted with the same care. A word of caution or a reminder is necessary at this point. Teachers must not let the evaluative meetings degenerate into a censuring or fault-finding session. This can be avoided by having members state the obstacles or difficulties they faced which prevented the group from following through on its plan. The positive behavior of the group can be evaluated, also by the group, although in some instances this becomes no more than a series of testimonials. These may have a good effect, but if one person testifies everyone must be given the same opportunity. The discussion at this point may become sidetracked; it should proceed directly, if possible, toward a final agreement that the new change is satisfactory or that further changes are needed.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 27

The behavior of my class in the auditorium at assembly programs did not meet the norms or standards newly adopted by the recently formed student council. The children were asked not to talk or make unnecessary noise when they took their seats in the auditorium. My class, however, talked to one another in loud voices; some turned

around and hit at others because the people behind were annoying them; others clapped loudly and stamped their feet or whistled when applauding. Recently two children kept fighting over who was to use the arm rest, and one moaned and groaned audibly because the light was in his eyes.

My class was not the only one which acted in this way after the edict was issued by the council. There was so much noise and confusion from all the classes at this first assembly that the principal went to the front of the room and threatened to call off the assembly if the talking and noise continued. It quieted down but did not stop.

I decided to see if I could bring about a change in the behavior of my sixth grade class.

Immediately following the assembly program I tried to find out the underlying cause of this behavior. To begin the discussion I read the announcement from the daily bulletin.

An assembly program will be presented in the auditorium at 1:00 P.M. for grades 4, 5, and 6. Please be prompt! No talking when you enter the auditorium. Take your seats and sit quietly!

I then asked the class why they thought this ruling by the council was not followed. The children seemed to recognize that I really did not know the cause for the behavior, and they were more than willing to volunteer the information. Their reasons for the behavior are summarized below:

1. The council was nothing but a bunch of stooges. They did what the principal told them to do. (This statement was not entirely true—but perhaps some influence was used.)
2. The assemblies were dull and not interesting. (This was the truth!)
3. The other classes were noisy and loud. Nobody would notice if they were the only ones obeying the order.
4. The wording of the announcement sounded like the council members thought they were generals of an army.

We had one council member in our class—David. He had said nothing during all of this discussion. I could not decide whether it was fair to have him answer these charges since he alone was not responsible, or whether he should be encouraged to present the council's views. Because a number of accusing looks were directed his way, it seemed that he



should be allowed to speak. Yet, if he stood up for the council he might be rejected completely by the class. A friend of David's came to the rescue, and I did not have to make a decision. (I still do not know what would have been best.)

*Linden:* It's not David's fault. We should tell him to tell the council that we want better assemblies.

The class got a little out of hand with this suggestion. Everyone thought it was a good idea and David was showered with suggestions—some negative, some ridiculous, and some highly critical. This was not getting anywhere so the discussion was stopped with the suggestion that on the next day the problem would be considered further. The class was asked to think of a constructive plan which would improve auditorium behavior.

The discussion held on the following day is condensed to a few of the major ideas presented. Many suggestions were given. It was difficult to keep the discussion on the point of a constructive plan. Many remarks were directed toward ways of improving the council.

*Plan One:* Suggest to the council that they reward the class with the best auditorium behavior with extra free play time or a picnic (competition between grades).

*Plan Two:* Have an assembly with the council presiding to get ideas from grades 4, 5, and 6 concerning ways to improve behavior.

*Plan Three:* Invite the council to our room to hear our proposals.

After a long discussion, Plan One and Three were agreed upon by all. Plan Three was not a plan, of course, but a way of implementing their proposals.

These plans were carried out with the following results.

1. The council came, listened to the proposal, and decided to carry it out.
2. Feeling toward the council changed as a result.
3. A suggestion was made that council representatives explain to their classes the purpose of the assembly. This was agreed to by the council and they did a good job as the behavior of the classes in the next assembly proved.

Since the original purpose was to attempt to change the behavior of individuals in our room in the auditorium, before the planning assembly, the group was asked to consider how they should act at this time.

There was no dissension whatever. Someone remarked that as sixth graders they had better set an example. They de-

cided that they would march in, take their seats, and act businesslike. We spent some time deciding who was to make certain suggestions, how to address the council, and so on. When asked, everyone agreed that this was the way they would behave.

The assembly was held and not one sixth grader made an unnecessary sound. They acted very important and grown-up when they made their suggestions and proposals. The other classes were much quieter when they came in, which helped. After the assembly, when the class came back to the room it more or less exploded. They were so proud of what they felt they had accomplished.

Whether this has an effect on future behavior remains to be seen. However, the fact that these students feel they have had something to say about the situation seems to have changed their attitude completely about assemblies. The attitude toward the council and the principal has changed, too. The praise they have received has helped. They now seem to think that assembly behavior is their responsibility. I do not anticipate any difficulty similar to that which occurred previously.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. In the incident presented the teacher felt there was no need to stabilize behavior. It must be assumed that assembly programs are spaced over a period of time; how could the behavior be stabilized before another assembly was called? Would the student council provide a means?
2. The teacher was probably wrong to believe that the good intentions would remain as strong the next time the assembly met. What can be done to make the change in behavior permanent and freeze it at this level?

### Action Steps

1. Divide the class into small discussion groups of four or five members. The problem is to determine all the possible ways that the teacher of this class might stabilize this change in behavior.
2. Each group should select a discussion leader and recorder.
3. A group report should be prepared and should represent the various ways change might be stabilized in this

situation. The number of the suggestions should be something the group decides. Some groups may wish to decide on one suggestion and develop it in depth.

### Concluding Activities

1. Each leader should report his group's suggestions to the class as a whole.
2. The class as a whole should suggest any difficulties they see that the teacher might encounter when he attempts to follow the various plans suggested.

## CHANGING GOAL BEHAVIOR

Just as individuals have needs, so do groups develop needs relating to achieving a desired state of affairs or a satisfactory system of functioning. These needs direct group action, or the actions of a few individuals toward achieving the needs. The need of groups to integrate creates a goal to be reached. Therefore, when the group members collectively act to change conditions, or when a few act as agents of the group, the situation can be conceived as one of goal-seeking behavior.

Group goals strongly resemble norms in that both act as a source of influence upon member behavior. They differ, however, in that group goals usually develop for specific purposes which are seldom recurring, whereas norms persist and, more or less, operate on a continuing basis. Goals, as well as norms, represent some degree of consensus among members, and membership in a group requires that the individuals share certain common goals. A variety of conditions influence the kinds of goals set by class groups, and numerous other factors affect the goal-seeking behavior. In education, the goals of classroom groups are generally discussed in relation to educational tasks and their completion. Group purposes or goals, however, often refer to the need of the group to integrate and to establish conditions which make working together less dissatisfying. The children in classroom groups are unable to internalize educational goals if the need of the group to integrate is too pressing.

If, for some reason, an unsatisfactory state of affairs exists in the group, the members of the class organization may take any number of actions to make group conditions more satisfactory. When the goal of the group, for example, is to gain more freedom of interaction, or to relieve a source of pressure, one or more individuals may behave in ways which create disturbances which allow for group interaction or release of pressure. When individuals behave in inappropriate ways that are approved by the class, they are help-

ing the group achieve a goal. Even though most group goals are hidden in the sense that they are not verbalized or even clearly conceptualized, these goals influence the behavior of the children to a far greater degree than the publicly stated goals of instruction or any standards supposedly set by the class. It is proposed that standards will not have any more effect upon children's behavior than educational objectives if members in the class organization are dissatisfied with conditions. Seeking ways to relieve pressure, or finding ways to allow for more interaction can be thought of as goal-seeking behaviors, and goal-seeking behaviors are as binding upon class members as the norms which groups develop.

The following incident illustrates a kind of reaction which can be labeled as goal-seeking behavior. In this case several individuals in the class regularly upset the learning program. Although the teacher states that other children try to avoid these youngsters, the class reactions refute this analysis. Quite possibly the youngsters feel threatened for a time and attempt to stay out of trouble, but group pressure to react soon overcomes any fear or threat.

When the incident is boiled down to the behavior with which the teacher must deal, i.e., when the teacher's perceptions and attitudes are omitted, the situation may be analyzed as follows.

1. It can be predicted that the teacher has attempted to enforce group standards which were never developed and accepted by the group.
2. Attempts at enforcement on the part of the teacher have evoked group resistance. (It could be that the source of resistance stems from other causes as well, but the behavior of the class indicates it exists.)
3. The pressure developed by the resistance is relieved by the behavior of two or more boys who initiate actions which tend to relieve such pressure. These boys are not problem children in the sense that they themselves have problems. The initiators of the action are students who rise to the occasion and fulfill a group need. In another type of situation these boys conceivably could be model members of the class.
4. The class group exhibits solidarity, but whether it actually is a united, cooperative group is not known. The solid front exhibited by the class in joining the resistance contributes to a kind of unity, however, and will be useful to a teacher who wishes to change the group behavior.
5. The teacher must initiate a pattern of management activity which changes class resistance to acceptance of appropriate standards of conduct during classroom work and study periods.
6. Use of force has created strong resistance. Further use of force will only increase the problem. Therefore, the plan for overcoming this difficulty can involve making the group or police its own

members (a procedure sometimes suggested for handling this kind of difficulty). Although it is conceivable that a technique which makes the class police its own behavior might appear to solve the immediate situation, it is highly predictable that numerous other and more difficult problems will arise which also will prevent the class from reaching educational objectives.

## INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 28

The class as a whole is well behaved, but there are two or three boys who are responsible for creating a commotion many times a day. They don't seem to be able to control themselves. They are always bothering other children with comments, jokes, and general talking. When reprimanded, they are very contrite and really seem to be sorry. Two minutes later they are at it again.

The rest of the children in the class try to stay away from them to stay out of trouble. They try to follow the standards. What commonly happens, however, is that the whole class is set off by these boys. When they start their act, others pick it up from different parts of the room. The class is disrupted and once again everything must stop to review standards and restore order.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. What steps must the teacher take to change this situation? How must the teacher proceed to overcome the resistance and gain acceptance of appropriate standards of conduct in this particular kind of situation?

### Action Steps

1. Plan the pattern of activities the teacher should initiate.
2. Decide if the activities should follow in any particular sequence.
3. If time permits, plan how the teacher will communicate the decision to make changes in the situation so that the members will perceive that their involvement in the problem is honestly sought.
4. Divide into small training groups and plan the action steps to be taken.

### Concluding Activities

1. The small groups reassemble and share their conclusions.

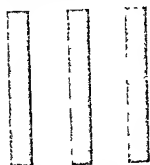
2. Plans can be developed to act out the situation. Volunteers are found to play the roles of the teacher, the two or three boys, and other members of the class. The remaining members of the training group observe the process and make notes concerning teacher statements that are particularly effective as well as those which by words, tone, or expression seem to create a negative reaction. Acting out such a situation aids learning and provides a means for analyzing teacher-group interaction.

### Comment

It is normal for trainees to feel that a situation should not reach this stage of development before some constructive action is taken. However, consider the incident at this particular point of time. What should have transpired previously will not help solve the present situation. Consideration of "What should have been" is a useless activity when meeting a problem that is *occurring at present*. It is not possible to roll back events which have already transpired and begin at a past point in time. A new teacher taking over such a class may meet the identical problem, since group behavior tends to follow an established pattern even if a different teacher with different practices takes over the class.

Keep in mind that established patterns of class group behavior must be changed by deliberate actions rather than teacher-injected advice, moralizing, or command.

# **SECTION**



## **Skill Training for Maintenance**

**MAINTAINING  
AND  
RESTORING  
MORALE**

**HANDLING  
CONFLICT**

**MINIMIZING  
MANAGEMENT  
PROBLEMS**

# INTRODUCTION TO SECTION



## MAINTENANCE TRAINING

The training procedures in Section II have given the reader an opportunity to actively participate in relating knowledge and skills in the facilitative aspects of classroom management. This section builds upon Section II, emphasizing the understanding and skill necessary for classroom maintenance.

Training, as it is conceived and developed here, is a process in which the learner is active in his own behalf; it is not to be thought of as something done to or for the learner. The learning which takes place occurs within the individual through his own efforts.

Further, training is an intentional means of promoting the learning that is to take place and is not to be confused with accidental or hazard events or experiences. The materials and the procedures are intended to achieve understanding and teacher skill in management. Designed for that purpose, they also intend to engage the participation of the learner.

The training materials constitute sequential experiences, using the incident techniques to present real situations and problems. Although one intense experience may have long-lasting effects, such intensity cannot be assumed for each learner. The sequence of incidents, focused upon a general theme, is devised to reach more learners, each with his experiential background. The sequence also permits the exploration of the general theme in different situations and under different school and classroom conditions. The continuity of training sessions has several positive effects. It increases the amount and depth of understanding, takes advantage of previous training sessions, and eases the pressure



for learning that the individual feels when his success relies on a single or overly concentrated presentation of new ideas or skills.

Still another part of the training procedure continued from the preceding section is the use of the group in the training process. The use of groups, in whatever pattern, whole group or small group, is a valuable factor. It assists in the intellectual and emotional processes of converting new ideas into usable teaching behavior—behavior that the participants have studied, analyzed, and “tried on” to determine its fitness to them and to their teaching. The group exerts an influence on and stimulates levels of understanding and skill that are reasonable and, at the same time, somewhat demanding of the abilities of individual members. Further, the group provides support for newly acquired, and sometimes only tentatively achieved, behavior. It serves a stabilizing and reinforcing function that is mutually helpful to group members. The use of the group in the training process has considerable inherent and potential value.

The training plan for the facilitation of classroom management has four stages. The first is the preplanning stage in which the motivations and expectations of the participants are given attention. Their desire to improve their teaching and classroom operations are to be satisfied in later stages of the plan. Next is the opportunity which the training sessions give to study real problems with their particular conditions and settings, the dynamics that are described in the incident, and the teacher-action that was reflected in or directly stated by the incident. The skills to use in the given situation and the dynamics of the trial or practice, evaluation, revision of the trial is the application step. The transfer of the principles and skills to the participants’ teaching is given consideration, never is it assumed to occur automatically. (See Figure 4.)

The ideas and skills for the facilitation aspect of classroom management have been related in the training materials of Section II. Achieving ease and a sense of command will come with use in the real world of the classroom and, with continued thoughtful analysis, the level of skilled performance will improve.

In the training sessions for maintenance of the classroom group, a first step for the teacher is to gain an awareness of the continually changing interpersonal relationships, needs, and conditions. The teacher who must act to maintain or restore conditions should analyze the evidence and determine the procedures. The skills are used to support and maintain the group operations and satisfactions or, if conditions warrant, to restore change. In a dynamic interaction change and imbalance are to be expected and the plan may be repeated when and where needed to maintain the class as a unified, functioning whole.

The training methods may be used by individuals but group processes are emphasized. The group setting enriches the individual’s learning, even in the small two-to-five person groups. Contributions from teachers with different backgrounds, experience, and education are invaluable. Alternatives or innovative ideas are wanted to help with

FIG. 4  
THE TRAINING PLAN FOR THE FACILITATION AND MAINTENANCE  
ASPECTS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

---

*Facilitation*

---

Motivations and expectations  
of participants—re new knowledge

Opportunity for training—study of  
incidents for problems, dynamics,  
teacher action

Practice of skills in training  
session—critiques—self and group  
—feedback and revision of actions

Transfer of learning and skills  
to the classroom

---

*Maintenance*

---

Continued awareness of changing  
conditions and evolving problems  
and needs of the classroom group

Analysis of problems and  
selection of related skills

Using skills to support and maintain  
group operation and satisfactions

Spiral of the training, as given  
above

---

for learning that the individual feels when his success relies on a single or overly concentrated presentation of new ideas or skills.

Still another part of the training procedure continued from the preceding section is the use of the group in the training process. The use of groups, in whatever pattern, whole group or small group, is a valuable factor. It assists in the intellectual and emotional processes of converting new ideas into usable teaching behavior—behavior that the participants have studied, analyzed, and "tried on" to determine its fitness to them and to their teaching. The group exerts an influence on and stimulates levels of understanding and skill that are reasonable and, at the same time, somewhat demanding of the abilities of individual members. Further, the group provides support for newly acquired, and sometimes only tentatively achieved, behavior. It serves a stabilizing and reinforcing function that is mutually helpful to group members. The use of the group in the training process has considerable inherent and potential value.

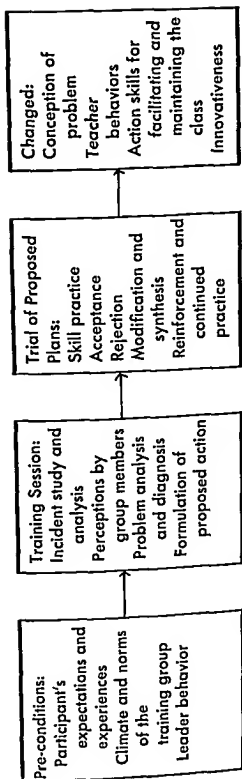
The training plan for the facilitation of classroom management has four stages. The first is the preplanning stage in which the motivations and expectations of the participants are given attention. Their desire to improve their teaching and classroom operations are to be satisfied in later stages of the plan. Next is the opportunity which the training sessions give to study real problems with their particular conditions and settings, the dynamics that are described in the incident, and the teacher-action that was reflected in or directly stated by the incident. The skills to use in the given situation and the dynamics of the trial or practice, evaluation, revision of the trial is the application step. The transfer of the principles and skills to the participants' teaching is given consideration, never is it assumed to occur automatically. (See Figure 4.)

The ideas and skills for the facilitation aspect of classroom management have been related in the training materials of Section II. Achieving ease and a sense of command will come with use in the real world of the classroom and, with continued thoughtful analysis, the level of skilled performance will improve.

In the training sessions for maintenance of the classroom group, a first step for the teacher is to gain an awareness of the continually changing interpersonal relationships, needs, and conditions. The teacher who must act to maintain or restore conditions should analyze the evidence and determine the procedures. The skills are used to support and maintain the group operations and satisfactions or, if conditions warrant, to restore change. In a dynamic interaction change and imbalance are to be expected and the plan may be repeated when and where needed to maintain the class as a unified, functioning whole.

The training methods may be used by individuals but group processes are emphasized. The group setting enriches the individual's learning, even in the small two-to-five person groups. Contributions from teachers with different backgrounds, experience, and education are invaluable when alternatives or innovative ideas are wanted to help with

FIG. 5  
THE TRAINING PROCESS FROM THE PARTICIPANT'S VIEWPOINT



the training problem. Evaluation of the procedures in the training group, and on the job in the classroom, can be done informally and meaningfully by individuals and the group as the discussions and applications continue through a period of time.

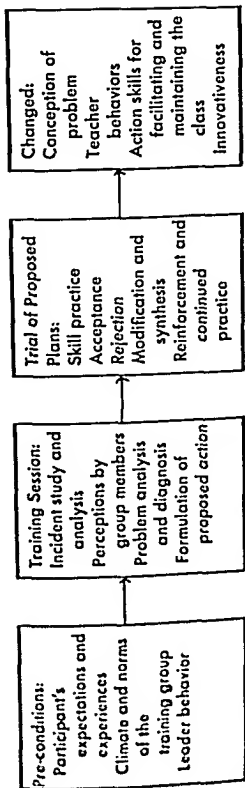
Effective training for a complex process such as teaching is many faceted and complex. The teacher's success depends on maintaining a balance among the many aspects of the job. To cope with this complexity the teacher needs to develop both understanding and ability—one without the other is insufficient. Overstressing the first, the knowledge area, in the training would produce a teacher able to deal with abstractions—analysis, diagnosis, prescription, and the like—but short on performance skills. Overstressing the latter, the skill and action area, would result in "how-to-do-it" approach and formula for teaching, which are sterile as neither provides a basis for generalizing to other situations. The training should be designed and carried out so that balance is maintained and basic knowledge can be converted to skill in teaching.

From the participant's point of view the training process is highly personal. He is concerned with the immediate experience of the particular training situation with its personnel, and with the effects of the training sessions. The outcome will be affected in large part by the expectations and experiences he brings to the situation, by the feelings and procedures developed in the training groups, and by the leader's or instructor's behavior in guiding the process. (See Figure 5.)

In the training sessions the participant studies and analyzes the incidents from his private background, responds to the shared perceptions of other group members, and helps, according to his personality, in the work of formulating plans and choosing alternatives. The skill practice, based upon the preceding study and planning phases, may involve him emotionally as well as intellectually. The feedback from the group concerning his style and effectiveness in performing the skill is a highly personal experience and should result in changes in his conscious and deliberate approaches to classroom problems, in his skilled behavior as a classroom leader, in his understanding of the dynamics of classroom change, and in his perception of his innovative skills in relation to the changes.

Theory does not provide skills. For example, the theory of classroom management provides skills neither for the facilitation nor maintenance of behavior. An opportunity is needed to develop specific job skills and this is provided through training. Training for skills must be a planned activity that includes the participant's pre-existing experience and attitudes; a confrontation with real material in a protected, laboratory-type setting; the enrichment of the group's interaction and perceptions; the opportunity to analyze classroom problems, devise possible solutions, and try-out the selected skills. Applications are considered in the light of the participant's class situation and his experience.

FIG. 5  
THE TRAINING PROCESS FROM THE PARTICIPANT'S VIEWPOINT



the training problem. Evaluation of the procedures in the training group, and on the job in the classroom, can be done informally and meaningfully by individuals and the group as the discussions and applications continue through a period of time.

Effective training for a complex process such as teaching is many faceted and complex. The teacher's success depends on maintaining a balance among the many aspects of the job. To cope with this complexity the teacher needs to develop both understanding and ability—one without the other is insufficient. Overstressing the first, the knowledge area, in the training would produce a teacher able to deal with abstractions—analysis, diagnosis, prescription, and the like—but short on performance skills. Overstressing the latter, the skill and action area, would result in "how-to-do-it" approach and formula for teaching, which are sterile as neither provides a basis for generalizing to other situations. The training should be designed and carried out so that balance is maintained and basic knowledge can be converted to skill in teaching.

From the participant's point of view the training process is highly personal. He is concerned with the immediate experience of the particular training situation with its personnel, and with the effects of the training sessions. The outcome will be affected in large part by the expectations and experiences he brings to the situation, by the feelings and procedures developed in the training groups, and by the leader's or instructor's behavior in guiding the process. (See Figure 5.)

In the training sessions the participant studies and analyzes the incidents from his private background, responds to the shared perceptions of other group members, and helps, according to his personality, in the work of formulating plans and choosing alternatives. The skill practice, based upon the preceding study and planning phases, may involve him emotionally as well as intellectually. The feedback from the group concerning his style and effectiveness in performing the skill is a highly personal experience and should result in changes in his conscious and deliberate approaches to classroom problems, in his skilled behavior as a classroom leader, in his understanding of the dynamics of classroom change, and in his perception of his innovative skills in relation to the changes.

Theory does not provide skills. For example, the theory of classroom management provides skills neither for the facilitation nor maintenance of behavior. An opportunity is needed to develop specific job skills and this is provided through training. Training for skills must be a planned activity that includes the participant's pre-existing experience and attitudes; a confrontation with real material in a protected, laboratory-type setting; the enrichment of the group's interaction and perceptions; the opportunity to analyze classroom problems, devise possible solutions, and try-out the selected skills. Applications are considered in the light of the participant's class situation and his experience.

# 8

## MAINTAINING AND RESTORING MORALE

### INTRODUCTION

Group morale is an outcome of the state of affairs in the classroom organization. If teachers have been able to successfully facilitate the group in achieving unity, establishing appropriate standards, improving classroom conditions, and modifying group properties, the morale in the group should be relatively high. Morale in the classroom is always present but usually teachers do not think in these terms. This is because most frequently the outward behavior of the members as they carry out their daily activities gives no clear-cut clues as to the state of morale. However, morale does fluctuate, and these fluctuations are most noticeable when morale is at one extreme or another. Teachers are often unaware of the everyday fluctuations of morale because they have not been trained to sense the general, over-all group feeling. They become aware of the group's affective state only when the feelings are at either end of a high-low continuum. Facilitative practices build morale, but the maintenance of high morale must be considered a permanent responsibility of effective classroom-management practices. It is, therefore, necessary for teachers to learn to analyze continually the forces and factors that affect classroom morale. Teachers must learn to take appropriate actions to preserve the morale that has been developed as well as to learn appropriate responses when emergencies arise and morale is suddenly lowered. It is usually the case, however, that changes in morale occur gradually. If a satisfactory level of morale has been sustained for some time, adverse conditions usually cause it to decrease rather slowly instead of causing a sudden drop. It is this gradual lowering of morale that is difficult to detect.

### Morale Defined

Morale is difficult to define because it exists at different levels at different times. Some descriptions of high morale include esprit de



The skills developed in the training process are placed in a total job concept—teaching. All too often traditional teacher education programs have failed because they have emphasized cognition or action without providing the necessary connection between the two. Training converts basic knowledge into action or teacher-behavioral alternatives.

In summary, a desirable training process and plan should free the participant-teacher from a narrow conception of his job. It should enable him to see the need for change and help him to change his behavior and to add to his job skills. Further, it develops his creativity and resourcefulness in the real world of children in the classroom.

example, if each student in the class desires to be first, to earn the highest grades, to be elected or chosen for the highest class office, to give the best report, and so on. Such a competitive class will not have high morale because one essential condition is missing. The classroom organization lacks unity, and unity is difficult to achieve when the prevailing atmosphere is highly competitive. Usually, a classroom of children is not composed of individuals all seeking individual recognition for scholarly achievement or prestige positions. However, the morale will be low even if the individuals in the class do not desire to be better than others but find themselves in a highly competitive situation.

Persons who work together day after day under the same conditions share a desire for the group to be organized and integrated. This means that they wish to acquire the characteristics and properties of a group, though of course, this desire is not held on a conscious level. This striving for "groupness" is a phenomenon which occurs when people are banded together in an organized work situation. It is difficult for individuals to concentrate on their work when the organization is not cooperative and supportive. Noncooperation and nonsupport of individual effort results in poor group morale. Morale, then, is related to group unity. A group low in unity can be expected to exhibit lower morale than one that is more highly unified. Also, since interaction and communication directed toward solving shared problems increases unity, it can be expected that these variables also affect morale.

Research by White and Lippitt<sup>2</sup> indicates that morale is also affected by leadership style. Groups under an autocratic leadership which dictates what shall be done and how it shall be done provide only a minimum of individual and group freedom of action. The other extreme, the type of leadership which provides no task structure or assistance in helping groups reach desired goals, causes high frustration and lowers morale.

It is usually the case that cooperation and morale are enhanced when classroom groups have a high degree of unity. However, a unified group can experience a sudden drop in morale, and if teachers are unable to diagnose the symptoms and take appropriate action, group integration will suffer and cooperation will lessen. Also, teachers unskilled in effective management practices may establish conditions which predictably result in low morale and a low degree of unity.

To illustrate this point, a teacher of a third grade developed a

---

<sup>2</sup> Ralph White and Ronald Lippitt, "Leader Behavior and Member Reaction in Three 'Social Climates'" in *Group Dynamics*, D. Cartwright and A. Zander (eds.), New York: Harper, 1968. pp. 318-335.

corps, vigor and enthusiasm, willingness to work together for a common cause, and persistence under discomfort. Stodgill<sup>1</sup> defines morale as the degree of freedom of restraint in action toward a goal. Morale in a classroom group can be described as the extent to which group members experience satisfaction stemming from the total school situation, and the extent to which members are cooperative and enthusiastic. It is also a condition under which the group generates a feeling of mutual trust including shared perceptions of events. Morale is lower in a classroom group when individuals singly have no clues or previous experience which would enable them to determine how others perceive a new situation, and when interaction is curtailed leaving no way to find out the reactions of others.

Morale can be described more easily than it can be defined. It can be thought of as relating to problems of affect—the feelings and emotions that arise as members in the classroom organization interact with one another, with the teacher, and with others in the school organization. The emotions and feelings, of course, are experienced by individuals, but they can have a combined effect that can be properly attributed to the group. For example, when groups are not facilitated in their development, individuals in the classroom may expend a large amount of emotional energy in dealing with social and emotional problems and with achieving integration. If they are not successful, the adverse conditions that are created cause morale gradually to lower as dissatisfaction heightens because the group cannot deal with its internal problems. Also, when the psychological interdependence in the group cannot be established satisfactorily, the group cannot deal with external problems.

The affective states which develop because groups can or cannot deal with internal and external problems is a way of describing morale.

### Conditions Affecting Morale

The group conditions affecting morale are several in number: the degree of unity, the amount of group interaction, the extent to which members have common goals, the extent to which the group is prevented from attending goals, and environmental actions which affect the group adversely.

It is possible to have poor morale in a classroom group even though each child is highly motivated, has the abilities needed to achieve, and possesses a healthy attitude. Low morale will occur, for

---

<sup>1</sup> Ralph M. Stodgill, *Individual Behavior and Group Achievement*, New York. Oxford, 1959, p. 198.

the classroom will either build up or tear down a group. The current teacher, however, is not necessarily the cause of a problem group. He may not be as ineffective as he appears. It can be that ineffectiveness is a lack of knowledge about how to repair damage that was done elsewhere and not an inability to manage the class successfully.

## Anxiety and Stress

Morale is affected by the ability of group members to regard their environment as unthreatening and to absorb stress. Recognizing the effects of anxiety and stress upon morale can help support and maintain the morale in the classroom group in two important ways. The most obvious is that recognizing the symptoms of anxiety in a classroom group can help in the detection of a budding morale problem before it has grown to any serious proportion. Preventive action can be taken before the morale of the classroom organization has deteriorated to a serious degree. Also, if the morale problem has grown serious, recognizing the surface manifestations of anxiety and stress allows the teacher to diagnose and take corrective actions addressed to changing the symptoms and raising morale. It often is not possible for teachers to address their efforts to underlying causes because many situations causing stress and anxiety stem from forces in the environment beyond the teacher's control.

Some conditions that predictably cause stress and anxiety may be avoided. For example, school conditions may be anxiety producing for the classroom organization as well as for individuals. Group disapproval may produce anxiety. If the class group is told repeatedly that the group should be doing as well or better than other classes, a prolonged anxiety and possibly indecisiveness and dependence may result as well as a gradual lowering of morale.

Situations which the group cannot figure out, which are baffling, or which have no precedent are anxiety causing. So, too, are demands which the group believes are too great for it to meet because the solution is not clear and help is needed. Teachers are sometimes told to tell their classes, "This is your problem. You solve it." Supposedly this approach encourages the group to take initiative and provides freedom of action. In actuality it arouses anxiety and eventually causes frustration because someone must facilitate the problem-solving proceedings. The problem would not have existed if the group had known what to do.

When the group feels anxious, it does not perceive correctly or clearly; its perceptions becomes less flexible. It sees fewer alternatives and holds to the prevalent way of behaving in the worrisome situation. Anxiety, which limits the kind, amount, and range of perception, may occur when the instructional methods of the

high degree of enthusiasm, a strongly cooperative spirit, and a great determination in the group to win a paper-drive contest. The desire to win became so intense that some of the children decided it was expedient to take several bundles of paper from the pile of the first grade class. They felt this action was justified because the amount of paper taken was a little less than that brought by their younger brothers and sisters. Besides, it was reasoned, the first grade had no chance of winning anyway. This raid on the first grade's paper pile was reported to the principal who ruled that the third grade class was disqualified from the contest.

The effect on the class group and its operations was extremely serious. The class was demoralized. Unwittingly the teacher had created a predictable situation in which the morale of the class would decrease significantly unless the class won the contest. Also, winning was allowed to become so important to the children that they were willing to take papers away from another class to achieve victory. Had the teacher considered the possible effects of losing the contest, steps could have been taken to decrease the importance of winning. Emphasis could be placed upon how much paper they collected each day instead of on how much *more* they collected than other classes in the school. Or, a reasonable goal could have been set for each day to give the group the satisfaction of reaching such a goal. If the atmosphere in the total school was highly competitive, however, it would be extremely difficult for a teacher to moderate the effect of losing.

Some practices that teachers are taught have an adverse affect upon the morale of the group. These include transferring authority to selected individuals in the class and expecting these children to control the behavior of others. Sometimes class officers, monitors, or safeties are forced into authoritarian roles. In fact, such practices frequently are recommended in the literature of education. Use of these techniques destroys the basic sense of trust which is needed in an integrated group and lowers morale. Employed in good faith, they are based on the precept of providing children with the opportunity to handle their own control problems. They do, of course, but the methods are inappropriate and usually destructive.

It is all too common in elementary schools to find that some teachers receive high ratings for their ability to control behavior in their classes. The facts are that their methods of control destroy group organization. Teachers who receive part or all of these classes inherit the aftereffects and often the blame if they are unskilled in putting the pieces back together again. This explains why teachers who are rated low in classroom management in one school receive high ratings in another. A high degree of management skill is required to rebuild a group whose morale has been destroyed by insidious control practices. The management practices employed in

in competitive and noncompetitive situations, the effects on the satisfaction of the group members, and their feelings toward group and nongroup members.<sup>5</sup> The results showed that greater satisfaction was experienced when individuals shared in the rewards for mutual contributions than when they were given rewards independently for individual efforts.

A study by Doris<sup>6</sup> investigated pupils' anxiety toward their performance. The group, fifth and sixth grades in a public school system, was put in a test anxiety situation to determine whether the children blamed themselves or others for their performance in arithmetic. Test anxiety and self-blame were found to be related in a failure situation.

This type of a situation can be avoided if teachers take appropriate action. Whether the failure situation relates to ineffective instruction, to a poor solution to a group problem, or to a failure to act appropriately in situations of stress, anxiety can be lessened and morale lifted by informing the group that a new approach is needed. Something did not work; the task (or whatever the problem might be) is to be attacked from a new angle. The situation is not perceived as failure, but rather as a set of conditions which produced the wrong outcome. All individual or group blame is avoided because it serves no purpose. What is desired is to achieve the objective. Anxiety and low morale are associated with low achievement and therefore appropriate teacher actions should attempt to reduce anxiety and heighten morale.

Anxiety and fear, as well as depression and elation, are emotions especially prevalent in group situations. Anxiety may produce a chain reaction within a group. When an act of mild misbehavior causes anxiety, the group, attempting to cover up its tension and mistake, reacts with wilder and more serious misbehavior. The level of anxiety becomes more intense with increasingly greater incursions into the area of forbidden behavior. The cycle builds up until someone or something gives relief and the upward-spiralling trend is stopped.

An underlying condition of group anxiety may or may not be recognized by the teacher, just as the causative factors may or may not be. The group reaction may appear unreasonable or irrational because of the unknown anxiety source. Previous experiences or a series of happenings, although they operate at an unrevealed and

---

<sup>5</sup> R. E. Dunn and M. Goldman, "Competition and Non-competition in Relationship to Satisfaction and Feelings Toward Own Group Members," *Journal of Social Psychology*, 68:299-311, 1968.

<sup>6</sup> John Doris, "Test-Anxiety and Blame-Assignment in Grade School Children," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 58:181-190, 1959

class were asking me when they were going to get their shots. I tried to make light of it and calm them.

When the day arrived, the children marched to the nurse's room, apparently calm and collected. Unfortunately, however, the first boy to get a shot was prone to fainting, so down he went. This seemed to set off a chain reaction.

From the nurse's room the children went to the playground for their recess, where another boy, sitting on a bench and thinking about his shot and the boy who fainted, passed out himself. I had to carry him from the hot, dusty playground to the health office, with all looking on.

When the class came in from recess to settle down and read their social studies, it was very quiet. As we read, I could see that a girl in the front seat was thinking about the events that had happened. Suddenly she fell out of her seat to the floor in a state of shock and then fainted. Because of the situation, I carried her to the nurse's room, leaving a responsible boy in charge as the class continued to read. Upon my return we continued to read; a few minutes later another girl came up to me and said she didn't feel very well, so I asked two other girls to help her to the nurse. Even though I tried to keep the class busy and take their minds off the shots, the rest of the morning I could see green faces, and they were learning little.

When they received their next shots all was well because I told them that not one kindergarten child had fainted when they received their first shots.

The method used by the teacher to overcome the effects of strong anxiety, i.e., the children were told that the kindergarten children did not faint, tended to supplant one source of anxiety with another. Another unpleasant, tense feeling would occur because the sixth graders were compared unfavorably with the kindergarten children. If the teacher made the statement in a calm, objective manner, the class group might be unaware of the cause of a new anxiety. Girls might be more affected than boys since they have a tendency to care a great deal about approval. Boys tend to worry less about what people think of them.<sup>9</sup> However, it would seem in this case that the unfavorable comparison would result in over-all group anxiety and certainly in a lowering of group morale. It is quite possible that the anxiety created by an unfavorable comparison with a lower grade could cause the group to lose its task orientation and become defense oriented. Because of stirred-up, tense.

---

<sup>9</sup> Mollie S. Smart and Russell C. Smart, *Children, Development and Relationships*, New York: Macmillan, 1967, pp. 383-384

inactive level, may continue to produce anxiety. The teacher may have no clue as to the cause of the apprehension; nothing will be said or done to indicate the presence of anxiety and worry until something activates them.

There are developmental differences in the causes of group anxiety, as well as to some extent in the type of group reaction. Children generalize their experience with anxiety, carrying it over to similar situations. The younger ones tend to generalize more frequently and more widely than do older children with more experience.<sup>7</sup> Anxiety in young children takes the form of fear. As children grow older the fear decreases, and anxiety—a painful uneasiness of the mind concerning a painful or anticipated ill—develops.<sup>8</sup> This age relationship is illustrated by the frequency with which kindergarten and primary teachers report the disrupting effects on children of tetanus and other shots.

It was time for tetanus shots at the school. The kindergarten class had been well prepared and was going down the hall to the health department. They were being very brave and there was no sign of tears. However, when we got to the nurse's office, one child started to cry and screamed, "I don't want a shot!" Within seconds, about half of the class was in tears.

Since anxiety is anticipatory, it should enable older children to adapt to an anticipated event which arouses some anxiety. In other words, it might be expected that children in older groups would not anticipate tetanus shots with such trepidation that their anxiety would become extreme. At the upper-grade level children are expected to exhibit more control of the evidence of their anxiety. However, that the fear of shots had become a prolonged worry to the sixth grade is described by the teacher in the next episode, as are the more than usual anxiety reactions.

The most difficult situation I ever had to deal with was built up in my sixth grade class over a period, as I found out later, of about six weeks.

Most of the students in the class were to receive their first tetanus shots, and a boy who had received his first shot from his doctor was going around and telling everyone how terrible it was. For about two weeks various students in the

---

<sup>7</sup> Boyd R. McCandless, *Children and Adolescents, Behavior and Development*, New York: Holt, 1961, p. 397.

<sup>8</sup> Elizabeth B. Hurlock, *Developmental Psychology*, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1968, p. 213.



disagreements, arguments, aggressions, deflations, and other negative social-emotional behavior, as well as self-oriented behavior. The conclusion reached was that as stress increased, individuals attempted to keep interpersonal tensions at a low level, substituting positive, group-oriented behavior for negative, individually oriented behavior. It was suggested that in the face of the external stress and increasing anxiety, the group members may have perceived the group to be a source of security and thus attempted to maintain its position in it and prevent rejection by acting in a more cooperative and friendly manner.

That group integration tends to increase during stress is a general finding from several studies. It appeared to Hamblin, upon examination of previous research studies of crisis and stress, that a possible solution had been present.<sup>11</sup> This solution appeared to lead the different members of the group into cooperative efforts against a common threat. Hamblin's study was an investigation of the effects on group integration if a likely solution to a crisis problem is unavailable during the crisis. The results of the study indicate that group integration tends to decrease, instead of increase, during crisis situations in which no likely solution is present. The scores secured from trained observers indicate that the crisis groups had negative results to such indices of integration as helping each other and for having praised or complimented the cooperation of other group members. It is reasonable to expect that when groups cannot find a solution to a crisis situation, morale will be subject to a quick, steep decline. It is the function of the teacher, when this condition exists, to help the group search for a solution. Even though the remedy is not available or easily found, the process of searching for the solution will tend to boost morale.

The integration of a group is necessary during a classroom crisis. The third grade in the following anecdote saw the possible solution to the stress situation and took prompt and adaptive action. The positive reaction of the group and the group members indirectly shows the characteristics of the group and, no doubt, the importance they attached to the success of the occasion.

Just before the Christmas program in our third grade class one of our little girls became ill. Because it was my first year of teaching and my first class program, I fully expected the class to go to pieces. The students' parents were not in the room yet, but they were expected momentarily. The entire room became completely quiet. One of the

---

<sup>11</sup> Robert L. Hamblin, "Group Integration During a Crisis," *Human Relations*, 11:67-76, 1958.

unpleasant feelings, productivity of the group is often severely restricted.

The uncertainty of a new situation and worry over how to act produces some anxiety. In the case that follows, the class had gone through a period of anticipation combined with an eager, slightly worried desire to do the right thing.

The class now has a practice-teacher from a nearby college. The class was oriented, prepared for him, and looked forward to his coming. They waited expectantly that first morning. When the practice-teacher was introduced, the class was exceptionally quiet. The girls, especially, were very shy, and some were on the verge of giggling. It was the first experience for many of the girls and boys in having a practice-teacher, and a male teacher at that. After the first few hours, the situation changed, and the class members acted as usual—cheerful and friendly.

## Stress Effects

Quick, spontaneous behavior of the group, often noted in response to stress, may produce a similar, if not identical, reaction. It sweeps through the group rapidly and seems to all group members to be the way to behave under the circumstances.

Although a moderate amount of frustration may promote feelings of group cohesiveness and of acceptance and loyalty to group plans and goals, extreme frustration results in a deterioration of morale. In stress situations the group may not be able to make the needed adjustments or to communicate them quickly enough to all the members.

A group that previously functioned according to a rational code may, under stress, change its behavior.

1. It may repeat a previous behavior, even though it is now unsuccessful.
2. It may act in a hit-and-miss way, trying whatever idea occurs.
3. It may follow its established leader or, if that fails, shift leaders.

The effects of situational stress on the behavior of individuals interacting in small groups was investigated by Lanzetta,<sup>10</sup> who attempted to determine the effect of stress on group properties such as morale and cohesiveness. He found that as stress increased behavior associated with internal friction in the group decreased: i.e.,

---

<sup>10</sup> John T. Lanzetta, "Some Effects of Certain Communication Patterns on Group Performance," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 46:38-50, 1951.

to solve a problem. This frustration led to greater aggression within the group. However, since the organized groups were more cohesive, they were found to be less likely to split when disagreements arose. The data also made clear that the most important elements of disruption were the conflicting forces which resulted when different members of subgroups saw differing problem solutions as the best path to the same goal. These, however, were disruptive forces not related to the group goal. Disruptive influences included aggression against others, rivalry for status, interpersonal dislikes, and other similar disagreement. The reason why the disruption was not more serious was that the groups most frustrated and most aggressive were organized groups in which the cohesive forces were the strongest.

If members of the classroom organization cannot settle differences, and if disruptive forces continue to operate in the group over a period of time, morale that is generally high in a cohesive group will gradually decline.

Methods used by groups to adapt to or to relieve frustrating situations were discussed in a previous section. Some of these adaptive methods—children approving the disruptive conduct of an individual, for example—may be viewed as a means by which the group overcomes a dissatisfying work situation and improves its own morale. However, if the group feels threatened and is frustrated for a period of time, efforts to keep the group integrated will be reduced and morale will decline.

## PRACTICES FOR MAINTAINING AND RESTORING MORALE

One of the ways of maintaining morale is to provide an environment which not only keeps the group members moving toward task achievement, but which also enables the group to remain stabilized and keep its structural integrity. Maintaining morale requires that teachers expend energy and time to make the group environment one where

1. The class members have some say about workaday conditions.
2. The members are not expected in every situation to be passive, dependent, and completely subordinate.
3. The members are able to maintain a sense of personal integrity because they are given opportunities to make decisions.
4. The members receive psychological rewards because they perceive that the group itself is a good group, and because the working conditions are attractive and satisfying.

children came to my aid immediately and offered to find the janitor. Two boys thought of the arriving guests and offered to wait outside the classroom door and ask them to wait until we were ready to have them come into the room. Other children quickly did helpful things, such as opening more windows. Everything was taken care of very quickly and quietly. Then they carried on the program as if nothing had happened. I felt so grateful to those students for coming through so admirably.

Understanding the effects of anxiety, stress, and its concomitant morale on a group is made difficult by the fact that causes usually cannot be observed directly or predicted. Therefore, the state of a group's morale must be inferred from the behavior of the group. This paves the way for errors of interpretation. Because of the nature of present teacher-training practices, teachers tend to move away from the behavior itself to attempt an explanation of the behavior and thus prevent similar occurrences in the future. As it is usually the case that many situations that cause anxiety and stress stem from factors in the environment, recognition and treatment are more feasible than prevention. The action taken should reduce anxiety, relieve stress, and rebuild morale when conditions in the group call for it. Teachers must realize that morale is never permanently assured, largely because environmental situations causing anxiety and stress continually will affect children in class rooms today, and new dissatisfactions normally will keep arising as old ones are relieved.

### Frustration and Morale

The nature of the group organization is related to the way members of a group function in frustrating situations. The degree to which the group is unified and integrated affects its reactions to frustration and thus to the fluctuations in morale.

The differences between organized and unorganized groups in situations producing frustration and fear were studied by French<sup>12</sup> who found that quarrels and disagreements broke out more often in the organized groups, but that disruptions were less damaging there than in the unorganized groups. It was concluded that organized groups, because of previous association, had stronger group goals and more feeling of unity than unorganized groups. Organized groups were more keenly frustrated when they were unable

---

<sup>12</sup> John R. P. French, Jr., "The Disruption and Cohesion of Groups," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 36:361-377, 1941.

by the person who criticized them. Often the situation cannot be resolved in the sense that the problem is identified and a solution determined. However, the group process involved in clarifying and interacting tends to reduce anxiety and restore morale. Teachers have been trained to expect that such discussions should lead to clearly evident outcomes. It is difficult for some teachers to engage in a practice that does not end with visible conclusions. The objective is to restore morale, and to do this teachers must change an aimless reaction to one that is more constructive even though a solution to the problem, if there is one, is not reached.

Rumors which affect morale spread through groups. These rumors, which take the form of gossip, speculation, and even occasional facts, keep the group morale in a constant state of fluctuation. Most rumors are temporary and insignificant but when a rumor is spread throughout the school organization each classroom group is affected. It puts group members in an ambiguous position. Usually the content of the rumor is of importance to individuals; at this time, however, evidence is unavailable as to what extent individuals will be affected by the content of the rumor.

Common sense seems to dictate that teachers should find out the facts and correct distortions by telling the group what is true and not true. This procedure is based on the assumption that the teacher is accepted by the group as a valid guide for belief and conduct—an incorrect assumption. What teachers can do is to engage the group in a clarifying process where all aspects of the rumor are recorded and the discrepancies are noted. This may be followed by the selection of a fact-finding committee that reports the actual facts to the group. Again, the process itself tends to substantially reduce the mild hysteria-like reaction which accompanies rumor. Because the process engages the group in a significant task, it increases the sense of importance that individuals need and enables them to reject unsubstantiated information.

There are numerous other types of morale management problems. Sometimes members of the classroom group are placed in ambiguous situations where they feel very unsure because they do not know what it is they should be doing. The teacher may follow a suggested procedure which advocates that problems of interpersonal relations be delegated to a pupil steering committee. Such a practice places the whole class in an ambiguous situation in which all the members have mixed feelings and doubts. The steering committee is placed in a dubious position because they are suddenly set aside from their own group. Since human relation problems are very difficult to handle and require skill and training, everyone has real doubts as to what they should do and how they should react. The response to such ambiguity may be hostility directed at the committee, although the true hostility may be toward the teacher

When morale is lowered in a group, individual member's ego motives are affected. These ego motives include the desire to achieve and maintain a sense of personal worth and importance, as well as the desire for status, recognition, approval, and acceptance. These ego motives, which are individual in nature, are greatly affected by group conditions. If the group itself is recognized as important, if it has approval, and if group members together undertake and successfully complete tasks of significance to the group, then the member's feelings of personal worth and importance are affected positively.

In the class group situation much individual energy is expended in dealing with social-emotional problems that involve morale. For example, when a group becomes frustrated because classroom interaction is so severely restricted that members as a group cannot operate, the groups will often adapt with mechanisms of defense. One group may resist behaving according to expected and acceptable standards of behavior. Another group may approve the behavior of individuals who disrupt learning activities. Some groups may resort to scapegoating. These methods of adapting to unsatisfactory conditions provide some relief and temporarily serve to maintain some degree of morale in the group. The management practices used in these cases, of course, involve changing conditions so that groups do not have to resort to defense mechanisms. If adverse conditions are not changed and pressures are unrelieved, morale in the group will decline in spite of the adaptive methods employed by the group to maintain it.

A unified, cooperative group will suffer precipitous drops in morale as a result of sudden stresses and strains—pressures which usually stem from environmental forces outside the classroom. Such a group may be severely criticized by someone for its behavior on the playground, for example. The group morale immediately lowers and the response usually is characterized by helpless, aimless, useless expressions of defense or blame. The group may show solidarity and blame the person who did the criticizing, or the situation may create interpersonal fighting among members—each person blames the other for what happened. Whatever form the immediate reaction may take, the response characteristically is aimless and nonproblem solving. If the teacher is viewed as supportive, the group may become very dependent and look to the teacher to relieve the painful, helpless feeling created by anxiety.

Reassurance, soothing remarks, or sympathy on the part of the teacher is a nonproblem-solving approach and although these actions might appear to soothe the group, they serve only to increase anxiety and lower morale. Positive actions direct the group toward clarifying the situation, making an objective examination of what occurred, and exploring how the situation may have been perceived

Dear Mrs. G.,

All the people on the bottom of this list would like to have time to talk about people who always spoil our discussions.

P.S. We didn't get to finish our business yesterday. Could we please have more time today.

Signed

David

Kim

Lee, etc.

Time is saved in the long run by handling problems affecting morale when they arise. Morale affects the ability of individuals to work on learning tasks. Because of the nature of activities engaged in by children in the classroom organization it would seem that maintaining morale and restoring it when conditions cause it to lower, enhances learning. At worst, low morale can lead to resistance, conflict, malingering, and other reactions which undermine the ability of children to learn and achieve. Further, low morale can have long-range effects. It can cause dissatisfaction and poor attitudes toward learning and school—feelings which children hold far beyond the time when the dissatisfaction occurred and the attitudes developed. Attitudes, once acquired, are hard to change. It is much simpler and less costly, in the long run, for teachers to devote a continuing effort to maintaining morale and to restoring it when it lowers than it is to try and save instructional time by ignoring the situation or by using control practices which suppress the reactions caused by poor morale.

## VARIOUS CLASS GROUP REACTIONS TO STRESS

Various kinds of stress the group encounters in and out of the classroom work situation have been presented. The group may contain members who together or singly assert a strongly dominant influence. Unclear situations may cause stress, fear and anxiety cause situations to which the group may exhibit inappropriate reactions.

Sometimes a child who does not receive the response he requires from the teacher or from members of the group may respond in such a way that he causes a stress reaction in the group. Other times the way in which the individual reacts colors the ideas the children have of what the individual is like. Or, an individual's reaction to a situation can change the way the group perceives the total situation. Teachers may forget that the reaction seen has occurred in one particular instance and so they fail to explore whether there are

who placed the class in such a position. Often the children do not wish to reveal the underlying feeling directly and so they engage in fighting among themselves. This fighting activity makes no progress toward the goal of improving interpersonal problems and also increases the number of problems which need solutions.

When authority figures outside the class punish the class, this frequently creates an emotional reaction which affects the morale of the group. It sometimes arouses feelings of dependency upon the teacher to intervene. Usually the teacher cannot intervene directly so he tries to make the group take responsibility and accept punishment for its own actions. This process increases resentment and feelings of helplessness. The children may take to fighting among themselves because this reaction provides them with a convenient outlet for expressing feelings of hostility. Teachers can, on the other hand, respond to such situations by having the group examine the situation which led to the punishment given by an outside authority figure. This process can be followed by an explanation of possible ways of exonerating the group's reputation if members still feel the actions were unjust. This method provides a means of providing a constructive outlet for releasing feelings of hostility. Usually such group reactions spring from feelings of helplessness because members have no way of dealing with outside authority problems.

Because of the time factor, teachers often push aside or ignore children's grievances. Sometimes a procedure is established for handling grievances but again, because of a lack of time, the procedure is not put into practice. The following incident illustrates this point.

As the result of a fuss on the playground during an afternoon recess, the safety patrol member of the class asked if we couldn't have a discussion in class. (We have had these from time to time in this fourth grade class.)

We set a time limit on the discussion—not for the purpose of ending it abruptly, but to prevent “rambling” and to remind the children that they should stay on the subject.

Several children were called upon by the president and as each began to talk, another boy, Brian, broke into the conversation abruptly to speak himself. This happened six times in succession. Then the children gave up the attempt to discuss the problem and began to berate Brian for using up the time.

We decided to refer to this matter at another time during the day. (But we never did.) The next day the attached note was presented to me—and several children who had not had an opportunity to sign it were still trying to do so.



## INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 29

A. The class was playing interclass games. The two top teams of girls were playing against each other, and the two runner-up teams were playing against each other. As many times happens in games of this sort, one person may hit or push another person accidentally. Usually this does not result in an incident. In the game between the runners-up, a girl hit another girl unintentionally. The girl who was hit said angrily, "I wish Mary would stop hitting me." Mary, taking this the wrong way, retorted back, "Damn it, I didn't mean it!" This comment surprised the rest of the team. All eyes turned to the teacher. The class seemed shocked—not so much by the words as by the person who said them—and because the statement was made with such anger.

Most of the class did not think that Mary's language or her anger was warranted. This girl is accepted by the group, but not as a leader. The group went back to playing in a subdued manner.

Later, in class, an argument broke out over who was wrong in speaking as each did. This disturbance was quickly and firmly squashed, and the children were put back to work.

B. Joe was not doing too well in school. He got Ds in most of his subjects. He could not get along with the other boys in the fifth grade.

To give him more status he was given a monitor's job. He delivered the P. E. list from the P. E. teacher to all the rooms once a week. He did this job very well.

At the end of the first semester he was given a service award. On the way home he threw it away. The next day several boys and girls came singly and very quietly told me about this. When the class started in the morning, the children looked at Joe, at each other, and at me. We started to work and nothing was said. It was a very quiet morning. By afternoon there was a big change. A boy much larger than Joe called him a nut. In spite of his smaller size Joe started to swing but, was pushed down. Then children took sides with a good deal of name calling. This class, which usually gets along well together, became completely unglued.

C. One Friday afternoon Sue, an independent and self-contained child, came to me and complained about her

ways of changing the situation to reduce the frequency of the kinds of stress that incapacitate a child and cause a lowering of morale in the group.

Groups in stress situations sometimes respond with silence. This reaction is uncommon, probably because most groups contain members who cannot keep still. The explanation for this type of reaction may be that the group finds the situation incomprehensible; therefore, the members do not know how to react. In incident D, the calmness of the individual who is caught eating another child's snack and the fact that she continued to eat after her actions had been exposed is hard to understand and explain. She did not become defensive or react in a predictable manner. The group members possibly were bewildered and disconcerted because there was no clear-cut answer to explain her behavior. It caused the group to suffer a temporary disorientation.

The group reacted differently in incident B, although the behavior of one child was not understood and the situation was unclear. Possibly the name calling was an effort to illicit an explanation. In any event, the group reacted inappropriately to the stress situation and relieved the pressure by engaging in conflict. If teachers recognize the cause of such behavior they will take appropriate action to relieve the stress rather than scold or punish the group for fighting. Conditions were much the same in incident A. In this case the teacher used force to stop the group in the attempt to clarify the situation in terms of right or wrong. It can be predicted quite accurately that this class will exhibit more and more problem behavior requiring the teacher to use forceful methods of control.

In incident C the stress situation was caused by the failure of the teacher to respond to a request for help. The group acted to support a member in trouble and the teacher thought that the child's emotional reaction caused others in the class to side with her. Emotional reactions do create stress and anxiety in the group. This is most true when it has achieved a substantial degree of unity or solidarity.

The pressure caused by a stressful situation may be reduced by allowing for an exchange of views that permits the group members to see how others perceive the situation. Usually, there is a strong desire on the part of members to share common perceptions. Many times the teacher can take no direct action to remove the cause of stress. In the case of Joe, for example, who threw away his service award, the behavior had occurred. It was not possible to go back in time and eradicate the events which led up to the action causing a stressful condition in the group. The best the teacher could do was to try to restore group morale and to use more appropriate methods in working with Joe.

very concerned. Why this incident caused the group to become silent for such a long period is hard to understand. Eventually the class did seem to forget the incident and snack period returned to normal.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. What actions can the teacher take in each incident to restore group morale?
2. Plan what the teacher says and does when the attempt is first initiated. Predict possible responses from the class group. Plan various statements or questions that will gain group involvement, reduce the tension, and clarify the situation.

### Action Steps

1. The class group divides into four sections. Section 1 works with incident A, section 2 with incident B, and so on.
2. The group members of each section can begin with a review of situations and events that cause morale to lower in groups.
3. In planning what the teacher can say and do to restore morale, the statements should be tested regarding the possible effects upon the class group. The training sections should engage in experimental demonstrations. In other words, the training sections should put their suggestions into actual practice in so far as possible.

### Concluding Activities

1. Each section in panel form presents its conclusions to the large training group. The instructor summarizes the various approaches on the blackboard.
2. Members of the large group present their viewpoints on ways the various sections approached the problem.

### Comment

The skill practice session is designed to enable participants to improve through practice specific ways of handling the various situations presented. Specific methods not only should be agreed upon, but practice in trying out the processes should be included. The focus of training groups should be upon how the management activity is carried out to restore morale in each.

table companion. I said that I was aware of the situation and would take care of it.

Her table companion, Diane, was a large overweight child, who had on numerous occasions tried to gain group acceptance in a variety of unacceptable ways: showing off, begging for companionship, and grabbing some choice possession of another child.

Sue's complaint on this occasion concerned the removal of rosin from her violin case. My calmness apparently annoyed Sue. She began to cry and said, "But I want you to do something to her now."

Her anguish caused the class to identify with her against Diane. Immediately, there were verbal and visual demonstrations of support for Sue's position. Discussion led to many statements of annoyance with Diane's behavior. Some were as follows: "She always wants her own way." "She cheats." "She takes things that belong to others." A few statements were childishly brutal: "She's awfully fat." "I don't like fat girls."

D. During January we often have new children enter school. This year a girl from another state, who was a third grade repeat entered our class and seemed to have won acceptance.

It is our custom to have snack time at ten o'clock in the morning. This one rainy day we were eating snacks in the classroom, when one of our girls told me that she couldn't find her snack. I helped her to look, but all the lunch bags were gone from the shelf. I asked her whether her name was on the lunch bag. When she answered in the affirmative, I asked the class to check their bags to be sure that they didn't take Cathy's snack by mistake.

All checked over their bags with no result. Then I decided to look at the bags. The new girl was eating a snack, but her lunch bag was inside of her desk. When I asked her to put it on top she did, and then we noticed that it had Cathy's name on it. Cathy looked inside and identified the snack as her own. I then asked the new girl whether she brought a snack, and she said, "No." Yet, she continued to eat the cookie in her hand which she had taken out of Cathy's bag.

The class responded with complete silence. They did not react at all although the expressions on their faces seemed to indicate that they were shocked at such behavior. For several weeks class members continued to be quiet and aloof at snack time, but the new member of our class did not seem

course of action that will assist in resolving the difficulty. The group should not engage in prosecution or justification; its individual members should be guided toward working out their own emotional problems. Teachers must be certain that their own feelings do not complicate the process and that they do not moralize. When events such as the one described in the next incident occur, the stress placed upon the group could lower morale drastically if the teacher did not take action to help the group solve the problem.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 30

This classroom incident is a perfect example of what not to do! The group looked to me for guidance and was rejected. They were forced into solving a problem that was too difficult for them.

This incident occurred after an extremely busy and engaging art lesson—fingerpainting. Needless to say, the excitement, confusion, mess, and clean-up had the entire group of children (and the teacher!) at an extremely high pitch.

The project had been completed, clean-up accomplished, and the children had had a chance to unwind during their recess period.

The excitement was still very much in evidence as we began the usually enjoyable time of looking at one another's paintings. Unknown to me, there had been a fight during the recess between Jerry (who always caused trouble) and Gene (known and respected for his art work in class, but also known to be the possessor of a hot temper).

As the children showed their paintings, the room suddenly became silent. Jerry got up from his seat, went to Gene's painting, wadded it up, and then went back to his seat.

The entire group looked at me. My reaction was complete shock. Gene stood up, his face ashen, and his eyes rivetted on me, and began to walk toward Jerry. The class still watched me, expecting some indication of what should be done, and didn't even glance toward the boys. I rejected this obvious need to make a decision for the group and for Gene by saying, "I'm certainly glad it wasn't my painting that he ruined, for I don't know just what I would do." (All the while, for a few long seconds, Gene was getting closer to Jerry's painting but he is still asking me for help—and his eyes never left mine.)

Dramatically Gene wadded up Jerry's painting, at which point Jerry dissolved into tears and out came a flood of emo-

## GROUP EMOTIONS AND MORALE

Stress in classroom groups may be precipitated by one or a combination of factors. Time limits cause stress for some groups, especially if time is insufficient to permit the completion of a task. Threat or punishment, when the group does not do well, may cause stress. An insolvable problem, especially when consequences are imminent or important, can cause severe pressure. Sudden changes in routines, when the routines are of more than ordinary consequence, and illness or accident in the classroom may cause panic. Fear can result in urgency and compulsiveness. The same type of situations which causes stress may, under conditions of less urgency and intensity, cause anxiety.

Occasional emotional outbursts of individuals, which may seem inappropriate, have the potential to induce an affective state in the group. An emotional state is stimulated when two or more individuals show extreme forms of hostility. The group is shocked and the emotional state may become intensified because the feeling is shared. This is particularly true when the outburst exceeds any behavioral expectation. A stress situation may result because the situation is difficult to define and understand, but more often because the group cannot determine the appropriate reaction—the whole situation is unclear to the members.

Cohesive groups are more able to operate under emotional stress than groups which are lacking in cohesiveness. Cohesiveness, because it involves morale, the feeling of belonging together, and identification with others, provides security for members. Unity enables groups to resist disruptive forces, both internal and external, with much more success than can groups whose members are unified to a lesser degree. This implies that when class groups are cohesive the children are more able to withstand interruptions, outside distractions, changes, and even internal disruptions within the group. However, when the stress situation is severe, the teacher needs to take measures to restore group equilibrium and morale. Children's reactions to strong feelings expressed by individuals in conflict may cause additional emotional problems for the group. Individuals may feel they must take sides, for example, and this reaction threatens the group's unity. Handling affect in the group is difficult for the group as well as the teacher.

Dealing with such situations involving affect in groups involves clarifying the situation without raising additional problems. When aggression between members, for example, has taken an extreme form, the situation, which may be ambiguous, places a group under tension. The process should allow for free expression of feelings and at the same time involve the group in a supportive, responsible

the teacher's objectives, i.e., what is the purpose of the discussion? Also, in trying to understand what the teacher is saying, were any other cues besides language given.

### Comment

When teachers are leading a group discussion, they give many cues besides the words they are using. Perhaps more cues are given when teachers feel insecure or are worried. They may tell their class groups something that was never meant or intended. Tone of voice and manner of speaking are as important as the words used.

## DOMINANT AND SUBSERVIENT PATTERNS AND GROUP MORALE

Sometimes an individual or individuals dominate others in the class group and this state of affairs contributes to a lowered morale in the group. It is easy to detect the individuals who take over and who overpower those who might try to resist. It is not easy to detect the effects upon the group. However, overly high dominance by a few individuals does create problems within the group. The presence of dominating individuals, for example, can cause members to lapse into silence during a discussion period, or the fact that these individuals are dominant may prevent class members from reporting crucial group problems to the teacher.

When a few individuals create a dominance situation, the group cannot achieve optimum interaction and maintain equilibrium. Characteristically children react against the domination of a few, but sometimes they give up and do not resist. Whether the group resists or whether it gives up significantly changes both individual and group behavior.

The children dominated are automatically prevented from making decisions or taking action on their own. As individuals in organized groups need to expend a certain amount of energy in maintaining integration, a group that is continually dominated is under greater and greater pressure to find other outlets for this energy.

Group domination by one or a few individuals causes greater and greater stress within the group. The group may resort to temperamental reactions which are not easily traced to the fact that a dominant situation exists. Or the group may resort to other inexplicable behavior in order to maintain a balance. Frequently the group that is dominated finds a victim and resorts to scapegoating tactics in an effort to restore balance. There are other specific group reactions to the stress of being dominated by one or a few

tion over the fight. He was saying how bossy and awful Gene had been.

The class was still in shock. They were aware of the preceding events and knew that both boys were partially wrong. They were unable to decide just who was right and which side to take.

Fortunately, we still had a few minutes of school left, which we used to meet together to talk about what had happened. By the end of our discussion the children felt empathy for both boys, and both boys were invited to stay after school and have another try at painting a picture to take home. Three very cooperative girls even offered to stay with them and help them get everything out again and then clean up.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. There are times when teachers have no knowledge of what happened previously to cause a sudden outbreak in the class. Could the teacher say and do anything that might have prevented the destruction of the second picture?

2. The teacher took action to restore the morale of the group. How might the situation have been presented to the group so that morale was restored and the children were understanding and supportive of both individuals? What could the teacher say and do to bring about involvement and reduce the effects of stress and shock?

### Action Steps

1. The class group divides into small training groups of four to five persons. A leader is selected to coordinate activities.

2. Each person jots down the opening statements that might be made in this particular situation.

3. After about five minutes the leader will call on group members to present their introductory remarks. The listeners should assess whether these opening statements would steer the class away from taking sides and placing blame and toward taking a supportive position.

### Concluding Activities

1. Each group demonstrates one or more opening statements.

2. Observers should analyze these statements in terms of



personalities feel they must do as the domineering ones say. They, too, must have a chance to do what they feel is right. This problem situation frequently brings about a need to review and evaluate our class standards of working and of citizenship. The problem situation occurs only in the middle and lower reading groups.

B. In my fourth grade class there were twenty-one boys and only fifteen girls. This soon presented a problem in two ways.

Whenever we had class elections, which were every three weeks, the boys would manage to put their candidates into every office they desired. Only to those offices they felt were undesirable would they allow a girl to be elected.

I quickly realized what was happening and explained to the class to save time (which was the truth). I was making only the top office elective (that of mayor) and the rest would be chosen at random by drawing names from a card file. I also talked about the qualification of a good class mayor and emphasized that no matter whether it was a boy or a girl, they should vote for the candidate best qualified. So they wouldn't be embarrassed about voting for a candidate of the opposite sex, I had them all put their heads down during the voting. But for the most part, boys continued to be mayor!

The second problem was the boys' domination of the athletic equipment and games. At first the girls fought for their rights, and with my direction things calmed down—for a while. Soon the boys began hogging the equipment and playing areas again, the girls were complaining again, I was discussing the problem with them again, and things were calming down again—for a while! Pretty soon I began to notice that the girls were complaining less and less, even though they were being dominated by the boys.

The feeling of the boys' dominance and girls' subservience soon began to creep into other class situations.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. Besides recognizing immediate and specific reactions to stress caused by dominance, what actions can the teacher take to integrate the group and change the dominance-subservience patterns that have developed?

2. A plan of action must be developed in each case before any attempt is made to change conditions in the group. How is the plan initiated and what are the succeeding steps?

members in the group: sometimes there is a slowdown in the behavior of group members; they become passive and submissive; they wait for the bosses to take the initiative and do not respond at all to decisions imposed upon them; they do not respond normally and time and again wait for the dominating individuals to initiate action.

In contrast to these group reactions individuals in the classroom organization usually show a pronounced resistance to dominance by a few. Teachers must be able to recognize when the group is resisting dominance. A number of children may speak out louder and faster when a dominating few try to maintain control. The protests and behavior may be perceived as defensive; often they do not receive support from the teacher and are forced to become so. They may be unable to deal with situations because they feel they are under attack. The teacher often views this type of behavior as conflict or disorderly behavior. Of course, conflict is present but it is conflict created by attempts to resist dominance. Teachers do not recognize that the behavior they see is a reaction against a particular situation and so fail to effect a change to reduce the stress brought on by dominance.

A number of interdependent factors always affect any group situation. The teacher in incident A has organized the work situation in the class in such a way that it is possible for a few individuals to dominate. Because a dominance-submissive pattern has been established, it is not likely that a mere change in seating will eliminate the problem. In incident B the situation is quite different and yet a strong dominance situation is developing.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 31

A. During three-group reading periods the children are seated so that members of the same group are at one table. I use this arrangement for convenience and better organization. Because of a few domineering students, it seems that there is no individual work being done at all. The few bosses tell those whose answers are different from their own how the answers should be, and they see that everyone has these answers. This happens whether the bosses have the correct answers or not. This process of answer changing happens in such a quiet, orderly manner, that it is difficult to tell exactly when it is taking place. I consider this a problem in that a few individuals are depriving the others of the chance to decide for themselves what the answer should be. It is good that children move or act according to what they believe is right, but I do believe it becomes a problem when people with weaker

bilities of the authority imposed upon them and a strong need to be accepted and liked by others in the class.

Teachers must recognize that when they place children in positions where they must control the actions of classmates, the relationship between the selected child leaders and the other class members may soon become distant.

What do children do when they are caught in the conflict between carrying out their leadership roles successfully and being liked by classmates? They may try to go easy on classmates, or they may become exceedingly authoritarian, particularly if they have a few close associates who advise them when and when not to get tough. If they carry out their duties as expected by the teacher, these children may receive many unspoken feelings of contempt because they inadvertently have provided classmates with a negative picture of themselves trying to gain teacher approval.

The idea that all children should be placed in leadership roles to give them training is accepted without question in education. The objective of training children for leadership is good, but the practices employed often have unintended consequences. Forcing children to assume such positions can create anxiety and lower classroom morale. A more constructive approach is to use group selection or volunteers who are approved by the group. The whole picture changes when these leaders have group support and acceptance before they take over the duties of leadership.

The discussion relating to status anxiety and pressures experienced by child leaders relates indirectly to group status and group positions of leadership. Groups as well as individuals have a fundamental need for externally recognized status, for esteem, and for security in the school organizational system. A group's status can be threatened because some authority figure in the school takes actions against the class or some of its members in a manner that is degrading to the class. The idea that no control measures should be exercised by adult authority figures when needed is not intended. It is how the controls are used that creates problems and causes unintended affects.

Classroom groups that feel that they have achieved some status, recognition, or success, and are considered by others as good groups, can suffer a sudden, serious, precipitant drop in morale when an authority figure in the school admonishes or punishes the group or some of its members. No matter if the actions taken were deserved, often the quick, firm methods used strip the group of its feelings of worth and status and of being a good group. This process of group status stripping often destroys the group's incentive to be viewed as responsible and well behaved. In addition, this status stripping by a school authority figure very often produces outbursts of helplessness and rage with which the teacher must deal.

### Action Steps

1. The class divides into two planning groups. Group 1 will work on incident A. Group 2 will work on incident B.
2. The groups will select both a leader and a reporter. Each group will work as a unit and present one report.

### Concluding Activities

1. Groups will analyze each report and make additions and changes as needed. The purpose of the analysis is not to criticize but to make improvements.
2. If time allows, each group can analyze its own interaction processes. Was the interaction free or were attempts made to dominate the discussion?

### Comment

In most discussion and planning sessions the participants act primarily to stimulate each other, to check suggestions for feasibility, and to supplement and improve the plan. When training groups are large, interaction is more difficult. The best possible plan will not emerge if training groups have problems in functioning.

## INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP STATUS ANXIETY

Children often are placed in the role of leaders, which increases their need for external recognition by authority figures as well as for acceptance by others in the class. Because they are selected by teachers or administrators to perform the leadership role, they need recognition from classmates to prove to themselves that they are competent to perform the leadership role demanded of them. Many internal conflicts can result when children are placed in or forced into positions of leadership. Anxiety can be aroused because such children must perform the role required of them and still retain their acceptance as members of the class group. Present educational practices emphasize that teachers support and recognize individuals who succeed in performing their leadership roles satisfactorily. Children often find that after such recognition by the teacher a change has occurred in their relationships with their classmates. From a position of being accepted by others in the class they find themselves viewed as outsiders or teacher favorites. Others become distant and constrained in their approach. These individuals then experience anxiety. They may become torn between the responsi-

causing them to linger. The third grade boys came back to the room quite upset about what had occurred. Joseph then came to me to tell me that he no longer wanted to be a play leader. After his declaration, the other children (girls and boys) stated the same thing. They asked me to tell Mrs. Jones of their decision. It took several days of discussing the situation to make them change their minds.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. In each of the incidents presented for training, the classes involved have just undergone a status crippling experience. What actions can the teacher take in each instance to restore class morale?

2. Precisely what would the teacher say and do with the class to improve morale and to turn the reactions in a more positive direction?

### Action Steps

1. Preparation for putting the plans into action:

(a) The class will divide into sections; section 1 takes incident A, section 2 takes incident B, and section 3 takes incident C.

(b) Members of each section will study the assigned incident. A plan of teacher action is agreed upon. Each small group section selects an individual to play the role of teacher. Others in the group take the parts of the class group members. The time of preparation is approximately ten to fifteen minutes.

2. Each training section presents the plan of action to the class as a whole. The action begins at the point where each incident ends—the point in time where the teacher must take steps.

3. Persons playing the part of children in the class should respond to the teacher in terms of how teacher statements affect them. They should not try to react in ways they believe children would behave. The purpose of acting out the situation is to improve teacher-group interaction skills.

### Concluding Activities

1. Following presentation of the incidents, the observers will analyze the class reactions to the teacher's approach to the problem.

2. Decisions are made as to whether the persons playing

**INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 32**

A. Because of some infraction of playground rules, our principal suspended several of the sixth grade boys indefinitely from the after-school sports team. As it happened, these boys were the stars of the team, and our class was very proud of them. As I returned after lunch I found my sixth grade boys in a heated discussion group rather than an orderly line as they usually are. After I had calmed them sufficiently to get them inside and seated, I attempted to find out the problem, i.e., what had happened to cause the principal to suspend our best players. They seemed very reluctant to tell me and none of the boys would volunteer information. Finally one of the girls (the Brain as she is known by some of the class) revealed what the problem was. Immediately, the boys in the group turned on her with harsh comments of tattle-tale, dumb girl, and so on. Her telling me about the problem seemed to make the situation worse rather than relieving any of the stress.

B. My fourth grade class is a good class on the whole and seldom is there any trouble on the playground. In fact, the children take great pride because they rarely get into trouble. However, this happened recently. One of our new noon aides is a very militant woman and rules the playground with an iron hand. One day she accused one of my boys of using abusive language. Without listening to his story, she washed his mouth out with soap. When I returned after lunch I found a very angry group of boys. All talking at once, they denounced the noon aide in no uncertain terms. Even the girls seemed to agree. The class couldn't forget the incident, and returned to the topic several times during the afternoon, each time becoming angry all over again.

C. As a third grade class, the majority of boys and girls in Room 8 are selected as play leaders. They were quite thrilled to have been chosen because these people are considered the best citizens. This is an honor bestowed on the third grade level because of the way recess and noon periods are timed. The third graders are the seniors on the yard at those times.

This incident was prompted in a rainy day session last week; therefore, play leaders were not on duty. The children play in the room and go to the restroom by groups. Joseph, one of the play leaders, and others in the class were in the restroom. While they were in there, the teacher who is in charge of play leaders came in and ordered Joseph and his group out immediately! She said that they were distracting her boys and

causing them to linger. The third grade boys came back to the room quite upset about what had occurred. Joseph then came to me to tell me that he no longer wanted to be a play leader. After his declaration, the other children (girls and boys) stated the same thing. They asked me to tell Mrs. Jones of their decision. It took several days of discussing the situation to make them change their minds.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. In each of the incidents presented for training, the classes involved have just undergone a status crippling experience. What actions can the teacher take in each instance to restore class morale?
2. Precisely what would the teacher say and do with the class to improve morale and to turn the reactions in a more positive direction?

### Action Steps

1. Preparation for putting the plans into action:
  - (a) The class will divide into sections; section 1 takes incident A, section 2 takes incident B, and section 3 takes incident C.
  - (b) Members of each section will study the assigned incident. A plan of teacher action is agreed upon. Each small group section selects an individual to play the role of teacher. Others in the group take the parts of the class group members. The time of preparation is approximately ten to fifteen minutes.
2. Each training section presents the plan of action to the class as a whole. The action begins at the point where each incident ends—the point in time where the teacher must take steps.
3. Persons playing the part of children in the class should respond to the teacher in terms of how teacher statements affect them. They should not try to react in ways they believe children would behave. The purpose of acting out the situation is to improve teacher-group interaction skills.

### Concluding Activities

1. Following presentation of the incidents, the observers will analyze the class reactions to the teacher's approach to the problem.
2. Decisions are made as to whether the persons playing

the part of the teachers in each case succeeded, or if the practices employed created new problems.

### Comment

When discussing such cases as presented in the incidents, a regular suggestion is one that suggests that the situation which caused the classes to suffer a drop in morale be changed. However, we do not know exactly why the boys were dropped from the team. We only know that the class suffered a serious drop in morale. Even if the teacher could have the suspension lifted, the morale drop has already occurred. Perhaps a teacher might prevent a noon aide from taking such punitive measures in the future, but again, the morale loss has already occurred and school work is affected because the children are upset to the point where they must release aggressive energy. If instruction is to proceed, the teacher must take action that will begin to restore class morale. The third incident is somewhat different in that the response was avoidance. The participants in section 3 must decide if the correct approach is to try to make children change their minds.

## SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONAL PRACTICES

An essential part of performing classroom-management activities successfully is being able to think in terms of individuals, the classroom group, the school organization and how they relate to one another. Every teacher needs to understand the integral relations between parts in the total system. The effectiveness of teachers is severely curtailed whenever they make decisions about individuals in their classes as if each were a separate piece of a whole that equaled merely the sum of its parts. Individuals, the class group, and the organized learning groups in the school influence each child and cause him to behave in one way rather than in another. Individuals and groups in interaction exert strong effects on each other. Individuals in classroom groups and the class groups in the school organization have the capability of generating effects that are multiplicative rather than additive. This means that the characteristics and behavior of each child cannot be viewed as if the child existed in isolation. Class group members together have the ability to stimulate strong drives in each other. The presence of other groups banded together in the school necessitates interaction among the class groups, and these groups in interaction exert determining effects upon one another. Therefore, the behavior of



individual children, the behavior of teachers, and the management practices used or needed are influenced by all the forces operating in the school organization.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 33

In a seventh and eighth grade school a contest was begun. Each home room was to create a Halloween Interest Center. No more directions were given. About two weeks were allowed to develop this center. The principal of the school, the administrative trainee, and the counselor were to judge the centers in different home rooms. The criteria of originality, creativity and attractiveness were to be used, in that order of importance. It was to be the work and ideas of the children in the home rooms, with the teacher giving a minimum of direction.

The children in room 81, the Spanish room, developed the idea of a bulletin board comparing the celebration of Halloween in the United States and in Mexico, thinking that this would be an original idea, one that no other home room would have.

Excitement mounted as the day for judging approached. They divided the bulletin board in half, and a group of girls created a scene of an American Halloween celebration complete with a group of children dunking for apples and a witch flying through the air—the most traditionally American scene they could think of.

A group of boys created a scene of a fiesta in a graveyard, the Mexican way of celebrating the Day of the Dead.

The judging was done during the noon hour while the children were out of the room. The announcement of the winner was made during home room period.

Room 81 was not a winner. First place was won by a room that had created a giant spider web that covered the ceiling and came down and covered some of the desks. Second place was won by the very highly decorated art room. Third place was won by a room that had been turned into a spook house.

When the announcement of the winning rooms was made, it was greeted by a long silence, and then the comments began. "But you said it had to be a special interest place, not something all over the place." "Of course Mr. Mack won! He's the art teacher and he did all the work." "Sure does you a lot of good to work hard around this place! You can't win if they cheat!"

Group morale was very low.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

## Training Problem

1. The expectation of winning the contest produced good working relations in the class and a boost in morale. The class thought its idea a good one and it carried out the plans with enthusiasm and to its satisfaction. When the entry of room 81 failed to win, the hoped-for recognition by the school was not forthcoming. It was the first concerted effort of the group during the school year, and the failure to win lowered morale. What other factors were at work in the building and sudden lowering of morale? What could the teacher do to restore morale in the group for immediate purposes? What long-range action should the teacher take?

2. What actions could the teacher take to help the class see itself in relation to other classes and to improve relationships? Will morale be improved as a result?

3. What could the teacher do to improve class morale and assist the class's ideas of its relations with the total school?

## Action Steps

1. Organize into small working groups to decide what the teacher's immediate response should be to the disappointment and lowering of morale in the class.

2. Outline the steps the teacher might take.

3. Draft a statement of what the teacher would say at each of the points of the agreed-upon steps.

4. Describe the manner of teacher communication that would be most effective at each of the steps as written in the draft. One continued manner throughout would be incompatible with the planned progress. For example, a cheery voice and posture that says (along with the words) the contest wasn't very important, or it was too bad but we will have better luck another time, could not be maintained as a manner suitable to the desired goal of improving morale.

5. When the general plan and steps are agreed upon, the draft of what to say is completed, and the manner of communication for successive stages determined, make a tape recording. One member of the group may be selected or may volunteer to play the part of the teacher. Other members of the group may take the parts of pupils and make the comments that would be expected. This will help the teacher move through the planned steps with some feeling of the probable reaction of the pupils in the class.

6. Play the tape and listen for the effectiveness of the plans:

what was to be done, what was to be said, and the manner of communicating.

7. Share evaluations of the tape. If time permits, the plan and written draft may be revised and an improved tape recording prepared.

### Concluding Activities

1. The total class should listen to the recordings made by the small groups. Use the points just given as guides to evaluation. Also, predict the effects on the class in the incident.

2. A summary by the group or the instructor can be made to stress the different approaches of the small groups and the principles learned from the training session.

3. Consider the relation of the immediate action by the teacher, as exemplified in the tape recordings, to the problem of maintaining morale for a longer time span for the class in the incident.

### Comment

The procedure implied in the "Action Steps" and "Concluding Activities" is discussion. The discussion might be primarily for purposes of reviewing the situation or for a look at what is, or it might be to release feelings; it might be to develop an objective basis for comparing the entry in the contest with that of other classes; it might be to develop a plan of action; or a combination of these or other ideas. Techniques other than discussion could be used.

## MORALE AND INTRA-GROUP RELATIONSHIPS

The classroom group is part of the larger school system. Many times teachers must organize the class to work to meet a requirement of the total school. A paper drive, an all-school exhibit, or a parent-membership drive are just a few examples. When the school undertakes such enterprises, teachers are expected to take actions that will cause the majority of the children in the class to be concerned with reaching the desired objectives. The actions must not only gain group acceptance of the objectives, but also must maximize the satisfaction of the individuals who are striving to attain the goal. The school organizational structure should clarify the reason for the project so that everyone will know what is being attempted and why. All obstacles to performance should be removed, and a communications network furnished that will reflect progress and support the objectives. Usually, however, this is not

the case. All-school enterprises are commonly made competitive with some reward given to those classes that do the best.

Because this is the environment in which teachers must often operate, they may have difficulty in directing class effort toward the actual objectives. A competitive situation, for example, changes the nature of the objectives. Children work not to bring paper, gain memberships, or make the best possible exhibit. They work to beat other classes in the school. Group purpose is oriented toward winning rather than toward achieving the actual goals. If the project is oriented toward winning, then the morale of children in classes which do not win is bound to be lowered even though they also receive some reward for their efforts.

Human needs in a joint enterprise in which a number of groups are interacting are most satisfied by achieving and by cooperating rather than by competing. The all-school enterprise should reach its objectives with a minimum of unsought consequences and cost to morale. Because this often is not the case, teachers must do everything possible to reduce the effects of all-school projects on the morale of their groups. Even groups that win may suffer a drop in morale following the elation which comes with victory. Such groups often receive a backlash from losing groups and members become defensive and uncomfortable.

Mutual satisfaction can be facilitated by a realistic initial structuring of group members' expectations relative to the contribution they are to make toward the school enterprise, admittedly this is difficult to achieve if a highly competitive atmosphere exists throughout the total school environment. Groups can be highly motivated to achieve the major goal rather than the subgoal of winning and earning a reward. If, in spite of everything that is done, a competitive spirit pervades and interest is deflected away from the major objectives and focused upon winning, teachers must be prepared for the consequences and plan actions designed to restore the group morale.

Group morale will remain high if its joint efforts result in progress and if its efforts are noted and praised. Achievement by the group has a stimulating effect on individuals. Even though the goal set is not quite reached, cooperation, better communication, and an acceptance of increased responsibility—all forms of progress—are achieved. However, to experience progress, the group must continually be made aware of the improvement it has made.

#### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 34

A. Each year at our school a PTA membership contest is held. Each member of the winning room is treated to an ice cream soda.

This year I suggested that we should hold out some of the memberships until the final day of the contest, and then submit them all at once in an attempt to surprise our competition. It seemed like a good idea and the class was very excited about it.

On the final day of the contest, the PTA representative told us that they were considering extending the contest another week, so we withheld our little surprise. She was overruled by the school principal, however, and a winner was declared. The memberships we had held out were not allowed, and because of this we did not win the contest.

B. Wishing to be a very dedicated and sincere teacher in my first year of teaching kindergarten, I thought it would be good to get some group support behind the PTA. When the time came for parents to join this organization we talked in class about why we have it, who is in it, what they do, and so forth, to build up class enthusiasm. We decided to try and win the class award for 100 percent joining the PTA. However, some disastrous results occurred when those who failed to join were almost ostracized from the group. It took many days to have them stop picking on classmates whose parents could not join.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. In both incidents A and B the teachers aroused enthusiasm and a willingness to work toward a shared goal. The results, however, caused morale to lower. What steps might the teachers have used to gain group support and yet maintain morale and unity?
2. If the results were not foreseen, as they were not in these two cases, what can be done to restore morale and unity?

### Action Steps

1. Divide the class into two groups. Group 1 considers incident A; as a whole it may work on both sections of the training problem or split into two subsections with each section taking one aspect of the problem.
2. Group 2 considers incident B. Members may follow the same suggested procedures as given for Group 1.
3. Each training group should select a recorder to note all suggestions made. The instructor will call time five minutes

the case. All-school enterprises are commonly made competitive with some reward given to those classes that do the best.

Because this is the environment in which teachers must often operate, they may have difficulty in directing class effort toward the actual objectives. A competitive situation, for example, changes the nature of the objectives. Children work not to bring paper, gain memberships, or make the best possible exhibit. They work to beat other classes in the school. Group purpose is oriented toward winning rather than toward achieving the actual goals. If the project is oriented toward winning, then the morale of children in classes which do not win is bound to be lowered even though they also receive some reward for their efforts.

Human needs in a joint enterprise in which a number of groups are interacting are most satisfied by achieving and by cooperating rather than by competing. The all-school enterprise should reach its objectives with a minimum of unsought consequences and cost to morale. Because this often is not the case, teachers must do everything possible to reduce the effects of all-school projects on the morale of their groups. Even groups that win may suffer a drop in morale following the elation which comes with victory. Such groups often receive a backlash from losing groups and members become defensive and uncomfortable.

Mutual satisfaction can be facilitated by a realistic initial structuring of group members' expectations relative to the contribution they are to make toward the school enterprise, admittedly this is difficult to achieve if a highly competitive atmosphere exists throughout the total school environment. Groups can be highly motivated to achieve the major goal rather than the subgoal of winning and earning a reward. If, in spite of everything that is done, a competitive spirit pervades and interest is deflected away from the major objectives and focused upon winning, teachers must be prepared for the consequences and plan actions designed to restore the group morale.

Group morale will remain high if its joint efforts result in progress and if its efforts are noted and praised. Achievement by the group has a stimulating effect on individuals. Even though the goal set is not quite reached, cooperation, better communication, and an acceptance of increased responsibility—all forms of progress—are achieved. However, to experience progress, the group must continually be made aware of the improvement it has made.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 34

A. Each year at our school a PTA membership contest is held. Each member of the winning room is treated to an ice cream soda.

This year I suggested that we should hold out some of the memberships until the final day of the contest, and then submit them all at once in an attempt to surprise our competition. It seemed like a good idea and the class was very excited about it.

On the final day of the contest, the PTA representative told us that they were considering extending the contest another week, so we withheld our little surprise. She was overruled by the school principal, however, and a winner was declared. The memberships we had held out were not allowed, and because of this we did not win the contest.

B. Wishing to be a very dedicated and sincere teacher in my first year of teaching kindergarten, I thought it would be good to get some group support behind the PTA. When the time came for parents to join this organization we talked in class about why we have it, who is in it, what they do, and so forth, to build up class enthusiasm. We decided to try and win the class award for 100 percent joining the PTA. However, some disastrous results occurred when those who failed to join were almost ostracized from the group. It took many days to have them stop picking on classmates whose parents could not join.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. In both incidents A and B the teachers aroused enthusiasm and a willingness to work toward a shared goal. The results, however, caused morale to lower. What steps might the teachers have used to gain group support and yet maintain morale and unity?
2. If the results were not foreseen, as they were not in these two cases, what can be done to restore morale and unity?

### Action Steps

1. Divide the class into two groups. Group 1 considers incident A; as a whole it may work on both sections of the training problem or split into two subsections with each section taking one aspect of the problem.
2. Group 2 considers incident B. Members may follow the same suggested procedures as given for Group 1.
3. Each training group should select a recorder to note all suggestions made. The instructor will call time five minutes

the case. All-school enterprises are commonly made competitive with some reward given to those classes that do the best.

Because this is the environment in which teachers must often operate, they may have difficulty in directing class effort toward the actual objectives. A competitive situation, for example, changes the nature of the objectives. Children work not to bring paper, gain memberships, or make the best possible exhibit. They work to beat other classes in the school. Group purpose is oriented toward winning rather than toward achieving the actual goals. If the project is oriented toward winning, then the morale of children in classes which do not win is bound to be lowered even though they also receive some reward for their efforts.

Human needs in a joint enterprise in which a number of groups are interacting are most satisfied by achieving and by cooperating rather than by competing. The all-school enterprise should reach its objectives with a minimum of unsought consequences and cost to morale. Because this often is not the case, teachers must do everything possible to reduce the effects of all-school projects on the morale of their groups. Even groups that win may suffer a drop in morale following the elation which comes with victory. Such groups often receive a backlash from losing groups and members become defensive and uncomfortable.

Mutual satisfaction can be facilitated by a realistic initial structuring of group members' expectations relative to the contribution they are to make toward the school enterprise, admittedly this is difficult to achieve if a highly competitive atmosphere exists throughout the total school environment. Groups can be highly motivated to achieve the major goal rather than the subgoal of winning and earning a reward. If, in spite of everything that is done, a competitive spirit pervades and interest is deflected away from the major objectives and focused upon winning, teachers must be prepared for the consequences and plan actions designed to restore the group morale.

Group morale will remain high if its joint efforts result in progress and if its efforts are noted and praised. Achievement by the group has a stimulating effect on individuals. Even though the goal set is not quite reached, cooperation, better communication, and an acceptance of increased responsibility—all forms of progress—are achieved. However, to experience progress, the group must continually be made aware of the improvement it has made.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 34

A. Each year at our school a PTA membership contest is held. Each member of the winning room is treated to an ice cream soda.



This year I suggested that we should hold out some of the memberships until the final day of the contest, and then submit them all at once in an attempt to surprise our competition. It seemed like a good idea and the class was very excited about it.

On the final day of the contest, the PTA representative told us that they were considering extending the contest another week, so we withheld our little surprise. She was overruled by the school principal, however, and a winner was declared. The memberships we had held out were not allowed, and because of this we did not win the contest.

B. Wishing to be a very dedicated and sincere teacher in my first year of teaching kindergarten, I thought it would be good to get some group support behind the PTA. When the time came for parents to join this organization we talked in class about why we have it, who is in it, what they do, and so forth, to build up class enthusiasm. We decided to try and win the class award for 100 percent joining the PTA. However, some disastrous results occurred when those who failed to join were almost ostracized from the group. It took many days to have them stop picking on classmates whose parents could not join.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. In both incidents A and B the teachers aroused enthusiasm and a willingness to work toward a shared goal. The results, however, caused morale to lower. What steps might the teachers have used to gain group support and yet maintain morale and unity?
2. If the results were not foreseen, as they were not in these two cases, what can be done to restore morale and unity?

### Action Steps

1. Divide the class into two groups. Group 1 considers incident A; as a whole it may work on both sections of the training problem or split into two subsections with each section taking one aspect of the problem.
2. Group 2 considers incident B. Members may follow the same suggested procedures as given for Group 1.
3. Each training group should select a recorder to note all suggestions made. The instructor will call time five minutes

the case. All-school enterprises are commonly made competitive with some reward given to those classes that do the best.

Because this is the environment in which teachers must often operate, they may have difficulty in directing class effort toward the actual objectives. A competitive situation, for example, changes the nature of the objectives. Children work not to bring paper, gain memberships, or make the best possible exhibit. They work to beat other classes in the school. Group purpose is oriented toward winning rather than toward achieving the actual goals. If the project is oriented toward winning, then the morale of children in classes which do not win is bound to be lowered even though they also receive some reward for their efforts.

Human needs in a joint enterprise in which a number of groups are interacting are most satisfied by achieving and by cooperating rather than by competing. The all-school enterprise should reach its objectives with a minimum of unsought consequences and cost to morale. Because this often is not the case, teachers must do everything possible to reduce the effects of all-school projects on the morale of their groups. Even groups that win may suffer a drop in morale following the elation which comes with victory. Such groups often receive a backlash from losing groups and members become defensive and uncomfortable.

Mutual satisfaction can be facilitated by a realistic initial structuring of group members' expectations relative to the contribution they are to make toward the school enterprise, admittedly this is difficult to achieve if a highly competitive atmosphere exists throughout the total school environment. Groups can be highly motivated to achieve the major goal rather than the subgoal of winning and earning a reward. If, in spite of everything that is done, a competitive spirit pervades and interest is deflected away from the major objectives and focused upon winning, teachers must be prepared for the consequences and plan actions designed to restore the group morale.

Group morale will remain high if its joint efforts result in progress and if its efforts are noted and praised. Achievement by the group has a stimulating effect on individuals. Even though the goal set is not quite reached, cooperation, better communication, and an acceptance of increased responsibility—all forms of progress—are achieved. However, to experience progress, the group must continually be made aware of the improvement it has made.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 34

A. Each year at our school a PTA membership contest is held. Each member of the winning room is treated to an ice cream soda.

stroyed. When unity is lowered, so is the morale in the classroom organization.

In the incident which follows the boys in the class behaved inappropriately on the playground. It appears that the teacher used several patterns of control to force these boys to behave according to desired expectations. According to the teacher's own report, the control practices were administered in the following order.

1. A lecture followed by punishment.
2. More severe punishment for three of the boys (possibly to set an example).
3. Use of pressure to obtain a commitment from the boys.
4. A confrontation which mostly likely involved severe threat (whether he realized this or not) because the teacher noted that the behavior of the boys improved.

Use of force and pressure can change surface behavior but will predictably create many other problems. The management practices used by this teacher could affect group unity in several possible ways.

1. The group might split into two factions—one faction consisting of the boys, the other consisting of the girls.
2. Group solidarity could increase, with the total group resisting most teacher efforts and thus necessitating the use of constant force and pressure.
3. The dissatisfaction engendered by the inappropriate control methods could create conflict and dissension within the total group causing such poor interpersonal relations that all instructional activities would be severely affected.

Even if the teacher used appropriate methods to handle the playground problem, the fact that the boys were handled separately away from the total group weakened unity and lowered morale. It is true that only the boys caused the problem, but their behavior was a concern of the total group organization. Once members of a unified group accept a set of behavioral standards or establish behavioral norms, these groups exhibit a concern for the conformity of all members to the standards or norms. Even though only a few individuals, or even a sizable portion of the total group, deviate from expected standards of conduct, the total class organization is affected and the management practices employed should involve the total group.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 35

The children have been together for one semester. We had developed standards and the class was just beginning to

before the small-group training is concluded so the groups can organize suggestions for the report to the total group.

### Concluding Activities

1. The reporter from groups 1 and 2 will present the conclusions reached.

2. Members of the large group will analyze and evaluate the reports. Individual members of the training group may express their views of the decisions reached.

### Comment

Although it is very important to avoid actions which may cause a lowering of morale in the group, or which may disrupt group unity, it is not uncommon that demands upon the school organization create pressures in classroom groups, the results of which cannot always be predicted. It is suggested that most of the attention be placed upon restoring morale, as it is not possible to maintain a substantial level.

## INAPPROPRIATE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND MORALE

If the classroom organization as a whole is unified and cooperative, it reduces teacher-group intervention and the necessity for teachers to continually redefine acceptable patterns of conduct. A unified group can more easily define and redefine common behavioral goals, thus permitting unity of action. Many times some or a number of children in the class do not adhere to acceptable standards of conduct at a particular time. The members of the total class have the ability to strongly influence the behavior of individual members, but often when some of the children in the group do not behave appropriately, teachers deal only with the children involved. They ignore the fact that the behavior of these individuals is of concern to the total group.

When teachers deal only with a subgroup in the class, this subgroup may become resistant and develop behavioral patterns of its own that are in conflict with those of the larger group. These patterns of behavior, or norms, regulate the behavior of the members of the subgroup. Because the integrity of the class organization is dependent to a large degree upon a commonality of expectation regarding the appropriate behavior patterns of members, when teachers deal only with a subgroup which has not acted in accordance with agreed-upon standards cohesiveness is lowered or de-

### Action Steps

1. The class will divide into groups of ten or twelve to prepare for dramatization.
2. A volunteer from each group will play the part of the teacher. The groups will take fifteen minutes to plan what the volunteer teacher will say and do and then prepare to make a presentation to the class.

### Concluding Activities

1. Each group will make a presentation with others in the class acting as observers.
2. Observers will analyze each training group's presentation by noting particularly whether the teacher's approach to the problem would, most likely, answer the questions posed in the training.

### Comment

The participants playing the role of the boys as well as others in the scene should not attempt to behave as they think children might. They should respond to the teacher in terms of how teacher statements and actions make them feel.

achieve unity when a series of events on the playground affected the morale of the entire class.

It seems that the boys were playing around on the yard instead of staying in the game area. They were not being harmful, and to them they were just having fun, but they got into trouble with the yard duty teacher and we all knew something had to be done because our class reputation was at stake.

My first action was to make the boys see that they had been wrong. Then I benched all the boys for two weeks. At P. E. time the boys were to do exercises and at recess, since I had yard duty, they were to follow me. We did this one day, then they acted up during lunch time when I wasn't around, and I was so mad I sent three boys to the principal's office. They returned with a note saying they made a commitment and please try them again. Naturally I had to try all the boys, so we had a discussion on working out a plan of action for the playground. They kept telling me the same old standards until I told them that they didn't feel any of the words. Then I asked them why they thought I wanted them to make a plan. Finally one boy said that if we plan, we'll want to do it. Each boy then made a plan (for example: not socking the ball, not hitting anyone, and so on). When we went to P. E., I stayed with the girls and could see the boys. They were playing and hitting each other and sneaking to see if I was watching. I went over to them, stopped the game, and confronted them. They admitted what was happening and said they were wasting their time. We then made some more realistic plans—they stated again what they were going to avoid. I feel that the plan worked the second time because the boys had a chance to state what it was they were really doing, and they were made aware of how their behavior seemed to others. This seemed to make them feel that they wanted to act right and according to the standards we had developed in class.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. Assume that the group had developed some degree of unity, and that the standards were accepted although the commitment was not firm. What could the teacher have done when the trouble occurred with the teacher on yard duty?
2. What can the teacher say and do to handle this problem and yet further unify and integrate the group?

with more tolerance. Members would object, but not so vehemently, and would require an accumulation of grievances over a period of time before they showed strong outward aggression. These differences are not only interesting, but reveal some of the unique qualities of the group with which the teacher must work.

## THE MEANING AND DYNAMICS OF CONFLICT

The explanations of the aggressive, hostile, and conflicting behaviors of groups are numerous, but no one theory is accepted as final and authoritative. From them, however, it is possible to draw ideas that help in understanding and handling conflict in classroom groups.

Frustration as a prelude to and precipitator of aggression has long been recognized and critically examined. In brief, theories would suggest that when a classroom group's pursuit of a goal is interfered with, group aggressive behavior results. Group goals for elementary children would include preparing exhibits for Science Day, a display for the annual school art exhibit, or winning a school competition such as a good citizenship contest or a PTA membership drive. If these group goals are interfered with, the resultant behavior is some form of aggression. In these terms, teachers have often observed aggressive behavior and have been able to understand it.

The strength of the group's motivation to reach its goal is also to be considered in relation to its aggressive behavior. That is, if the group is strongly motivated to reach its goal—whatever that goal may be—it will be more intensely compelled to enter into conflict than if its motivation were weak. If the class does not care whether it wins the PTA monthly attendance banner to display in the room, the failure of the class committee to prepare the special invitations to parents will draw less aggressive attack than if the class felt strongly about winning the competition.

The degree or amount of interference is related to or varies with the strength of the aggression or conflict displayed by the group. To continue our example, if the class had a strong desire to win the PTA banner and the interference was strong or decisive, they would be strongly motivated to aggress. The class had planned to get out the vote, that is, to have their parents attend the meeting by special invitation. The invitation was to take the form of a cleverly illustrated brochure and was to be delivered by each pupil on the day of the meeting. The members of the committee to prepare the drawings were acknowledged as clever cartoonists by their class-

# 9

## HANDLING CONFLICT

### INTRODUCTION

Conflict is a more common ingredient in daily interaction than we recognize or choose to recognize. We prize the smooth and unruffled course of classroom and interpersonal relations, and for the attainment of school objectives this is understandable and necessary. Valuing the uneventful should not be carried to the point where we fail to understand that constructive potential may inhere in conflicts.

Daily interaction in the classroom tends to generate conditions which cause or arouse hostile feelings and actions. The continuing interaction of members of the class and of the teacher and the class is marked by changes in the degree of feelings of satisfaction and liking for work and for others in the group. If a high level of support and acceptance of themselves, of others, and of the school learning tasks could be achieved and then held constant, the work of the teacher would be eased. But such constant conditions are not the usual state, especially over a period of time. A realistic expectation, then, is that changes will occur through daily interaction and that feelings within the group will fluctuate and affect performance. The teacher must deal with these changes through observation, analysis, and skilled action.

One of the most revealing and most distinctive group actions is that of hostility and conflict. Behind hostile, aggressive behavior lies an accumulation of emotion and feeling. When the feelings are strong enough, or the stimulus or provocation is sufficiently intense, open expressions recognizable as conflict occur.

Some groups show hostile, aggressive reactions in situations that would evoke withdrawal and apathy from other groups. Another distinguishing quality of a group is the ease and speed with which they respond. Some groups would respond immediately to a relatively slight interference with their goals or plans and would use loud and physically vigorous means to deal with it, whereas other groups would view the same interference



seems less important than the infraction, the infraction will continue. When children are angrily hitting and shoving as they line up to enter school, the teacher's threat or "Stop right now!" or "Stay in during recess!" is not sufficient to inhibit some pupils. The amount of anticipated punishment may, however, be adequate to cause the fighting to subside. The intended punishment may be known to the group members, who will be inhibited without overt verbalization by a teacher or other authority figure.

Conflict within a group is inhibited by those of high rather than low status. The principal of a large school moves slowly across a large playing field toward boys fighting on the far edge. The fighting has stopped and the fighters have disappeared before he has gone far. The effect of a person of high prestige has been one of inhibition. Let us consider again the same situation: boys fighting on the edge of the playground farthest from the school building. Now, if a fellow student of average peer prestige comes running toward the fight, calling loudly, "Hey, you guys, cut that out! Quit it! Quit it!" the conflict would continue. His prestige was low and therefore insufficient to lessen the fighting.

Teachers are often advised to search for the cause of a class's hostile and conflict behaviors. While this is a reasonable suggestion and worthy of pursuit, there are difficulties involved. One difficulty in tracing causes of hostility and conflict is that often little or no relationship exists between the cause of the hostile reaction and the persons or conditions against whom the hostility is shown. The venting of hostility in acts of aggression or conflict often seems quite irrational. The displacement of hostility occurs when the group cannot identify the source of its problems, as with school regulations and policies, and when the person or persons are perceived to be unassailable. The feelings of frustration may be turned on the first relatively weak person to appear. This may be a child, but it is, at times, a teacher or a substitute teacher. Aggressive remarks are readily made toward a provoker of hostility who is low in status. They are less readily made when the hostility is generated by a higher status person. The displacement, doubtless, produces more intensive actions if the group sees no other chance for release of its aggression. The group's use of a leader that is an "undesirable leader" from the viewpoint of the school faculty may be more frequent when hostile feelings are aroused. If they cannot be expressed directly, or perhaps not at all, the undesirable leader may act with the support of other class members who would not normally accede to his wishes and actions. The displacement in such cases is often unrecognized. There is a need for acceptable releases for feelings of aggression and hostility and for appropriate avenues of action. The extent to which a group is organized is related to aggression. Organized groups, as compared with unorganized groups, show

mates. Other committees had been appointed to write and to duplicate the brochure. In this case, they met the deadline, which was becoming increasingly important to the class. On the last day, the cartoonists arrived to say that the drawings were not ready. Time had run out, all the children knew it, and no substitution was possible. The motivation to reach their goal had been interfered with, and to a high degree. The conditions for aggression and conflict were present.

The number of frustrated responses in a sequence is a precipitating factor for aggression when a strong motivation to reach a group goal exists. In the example of the class striving to win the PTA attendance banner, a sequence of interference in reaching the goal occurred. The failure of the illustrators could have terminated the entire project and resulted in expressions of hostility. In the class described, this did happen, and strong remarks were hurled at the delinquent artists. Because the written material was ready and they had arranged to use the duplicator in the office, someone suggested that they proceed without the illustrations. The class almost visibly pulled itself together, agreed, and proceeded to accept the report of the writing committee. Special arrangements had been made to have the brochure duplicated in the school office. At the scheduled time, the copy was taken there. However, in a few minutes a crestfallen and agitated committee returned to report that the office was unable to meet the commitment owing to some unexpected and high-priority work which had come in. Again, the none-too-settled feeling in the class showed signs of becoming open aggression. Angry mutterings were heard to gain momentum. At this point the teacher decided the class had dealt with all the upsets it could handle and made a proposal to save the project. He suggested since duplicated copies would not be possible that each pupil prepare his own handwritten brochure, copying the material prepared by the *writing committee*. *Some objected, most agreed.* The writing committee had started to write the copy on the board when a messenger arrived saying that the film they were scheduled to see later must be shown at once. The class was to proceed to the auditorium immediately. The generally angry response to this announcement made it almost impossible to move the group. They would not listen to the teacher's direction to put things on their desks and to line up. When they finally did, however, it was with much shoving, pushing, and hitting on the way to and from the film and during the showing. This sequence of frustrating occurrences produced physical and verbal conflict in a class that had been strongly motivated toward a group goal.

Acts of conflict and aggression are inhibited by a group under certain conditions. The punishment that is anticipated is an inhibitor. If the punishment foreseen is weak or inconsequential or

its surrounding conditions are multiples in determining whether the response will be to aggress further or to delimit aggression. This is one of the ways in which each group shows its distinguishing character.

Communication may arouse conflict. This is especially noticeable in dealing with individuals; each has his own original motives built from life experiences. Persuasive communication may arouse new incentives which conflict with the person's original attitudes or motives. For example, a child may have a strong desire to win when playing games. A persuasive communication could be a teacher's remark or a class discussion pertaining to giving children with physical handicaps a chance to compete as equals in games. For instance, a child with a visual defect could stand closer to the pitcher when he was the batter. The granting of the advantage to a physically handicapped child would present a conflict to a child who valued highly his position as a strong batter and who was able to maintain it only by maximum practice and exertion. The content of the persuasive communication would seem reasonable and fair. At the same time, adopting the idea would jeopardize the child's success. Both ideas were acceptable, but acting upon them would be incompatible for him.<sup>2</sup>

The effect of a persuasive communication which conflicts with previously held ideas and attitudes is evident not only for individuals but also for groups. Some attitudes are common to many members in a class group and strongly held by the group. Norms and norm behavior are also pervasive elements in a cohesive group. When a communication that is persuasive presents a different but acceptable point of view, conflict may be aroused in the group.

Conflict in school situations is not restricted to intragroup situations, but occurs between class groups. The quality of the interaction and the norms within a group influence its relations with other groups. Second grade students who are generally happy and cooperative and who work well in the classroom will tend to approach the other second grade classes in the same tenor. They will expect to give and take, to reason out problems, to accept responsibility, and to take their turn at duties. However, the process of interaction between the groups is the determining factor. Conflict may result, or cooperation and accommodation may be achieved.

What determines the quality of the interaction between groups? It may in part be determined by the common or competing interests of the groups and their degree of importance to the groups. Not all matters that touch upon the interests, welfare, and progress of

---

<sup>2</sup> Arthur R. Cohen, *Attitude Change and Social Influence*, New York Basic Books, 1964, p. 136.

more directly aggressive reactions, that is, more physical attacks and the like. Since organized groups have by definition greater unity of feeling and more commonly accepted ways of acting, they can use their power in direct expressions of aggression with less employment of indirect avenues and displacement. The unorganized group which is not sufficiently integrated or unified to work toward the usual goals using the usual procedures is also not as able to generate acts of conflict.

Acts of aggression are assumed by some writers and teachers to reduce the tendency of a group to aggress again. This interpretation is that the act of aggression is cathartic; the group gets the strongly hostile and aggressive tendencies out of its system. It is then assumed that the drive to aggression is lessened and feelings within the group drop toward the normal or usual. Observations by teachers fail to confirm this as a dependable prediction. At times, the class seems satisfied and conflicts cease. At other times, the conflict diminishes, only to begin again.

What are the reactions in a classroom group following an act of conflict or strong aggression on its part? The success of the aggression in resolving the problem or in attaining the objective is an important factor in whether the aggression or the tendency to continue further aggression is reduced. This matter of the success or failure of the action is all too frequently overlooked in both research and practical applications.<sup>1</sup>

The classroom group that has acted aggressively and has not achieved its goals can be expected to reduce its level of expressed hostility only temporarily. If the frustrating or thwarting conditions persist and are not changed, the class may return again to its aggressive attack. It may seem to be what teachers may describe as continually quarrelsome or easily set off, meaning that there are recurrences of angry, fighting behavior. The lack of success in resolving the real source of the continuing difficulty may not be easily identifiable.

Another explanation of the fact that acts of conflict are not terminal or even self-limiting is that a conditioning effect sets in. An aggressive act may, then, evoke further aggressive acts. Teachers who have observed this group behavior see that the excitement and exhilaration that comes with doing the forbidden or with breaking the rules, gives such a pleasant and heady feeling that it leads to repetition. It is comparable to the individual child's thrill in performing a dangerous act—climbing too high, swinging over an open space, or walking on a narrow trail. Why the conflict recurs is probably not to be found in a single explanation. The group and

---

<sup>1</sup> A. J. Yates, *Frustration and Conflict*, New York: Wiley, 1962.

into some activity from which a solution might result. Or, when the class is at an impasse in its disagreement over a goal, the teacher may introduce a superordinate goal. The large, encompassing goal must be one that can involve the positive feelings and loyalty of all the class members. In accepting the new goal, the lesser one and the attendant disagreement are put into a perspective, become less important, and may be forgotten.

## CONSTRUCTIVE USE OF CONFLICT

Hostility and open conflict in the classroom are disruptive and irritating. The teacher who is often too busy to be aware of the causes of the hostility or the function it serves, feel strongly that no dissension should upset the learning tasks. In addition, he must consider his own feelings and the administrative and supervisory ratings given to his teaching. Ability to control the class and to organize a working climate are among the usual items included in evaluations. Being well aware that professional standing is at stake, the teacher acts to repress and eliminate the outward evidence of aggressiveness and hostility. If he has sufficient power of personality and moves quickly, the conflict is stopped in its initial stages. The group may find that with an alert and personally powerful teacher its problems will receive no hearing. As it can see no approved way to alleviate conditions, its behavior may become quietly hostile, apathetic and disinterested, dependent with little initiative, or uncooperative.

The significance of the expression of a high degree of hostility depends upon that stage in a group's development in which it occurs. It may indicate the attempt of the group to develop unity, cohesiveness, and other group characteristics. It may indicate, also, the degree of the group's integration or lack of integration. The high degree of hostility as an index of the group's disintegration may point to conditions such as divisiveness and fragmentation into subgroups, differences in and lack of acceptance of group goals and norms, and other basic properties.

The appearance of hostility in the early stages of the development of a group may serve a necessary and positive purpose. Groups working together in decision-making or problem-solving situations tend to show negative emotional expressions before they exhibit positive ones. In the early stages of a group, the members may be exploring, trying-out, and recognizing shared values and points of difference. This is necessary for the immediate and long-range functioning of the group. What may at first appear to be useless, un-

two or more classes are of particular concern. The issues must be of significance to the groups at that point in time if they are to influence the nature of the interaction. For example, the assignment of the baseball diamond becomes important during the spring season and will be of little concern at other times of the year. Classes will vie for the use of certain facilities and equipment at given times of the year, and they can become important issues. Other matters of intergroup concern, and hence influences on the quality of the interaction, are values and goals of the group, threats to safety and reputation, and the like.

Conflict between classes, as well as within classes, can be conceptualized in a different way: conflict in a system. From one point of view, a group of students and their teacher represent a system, relatively complete within itself and within which communication takes place, structure is established, and norms develop. From another point of view, such a classroom group is a part of a school, which in turn can be seen as a part of a larger educational system or some other larger plan of organization. Conflict between classes, or intragroup conflict, can be viewed as occurring between subsystems when we are looking at the data and the interaction on the level of a system.

A distinction is made between two types of conflict by Guetzkow and Gyr. On the surface, both kinds of conflict would be similar. Their overt manifestation would be sufficiently disruptive, for instance, that the lesson would be upset, or delayed, or not finished. The first type of conflict is substantive, or that which has its origin in the substance of the task which the group is undertaking. The second is affective conflict and derives from the emotional and affective aspects of the group's interpersonal relations.<sup>3</sup> Both types of conflict are observable in children's aggressive actions.

The teacher, in instances of conflict that he determines are primarily substantive, can help the group reach agreement by giving his attention to facts. Because the basic disagreement is in the realm of ideas, the facts that are available should be examined and used. The teacher may actively aid the group in exploring the problem by proposing solutions and encouraging friendly feelings among the pupils.

In affective conflict, with its essentially emotional and hostile interpersonal relations, the group members tend to withdraw and to avoid one another. The withdrawal may extend to the problem situation about which they will appear disinterested. The teacher's effort will be to establish communication and to draw the group

---

<sup>3</sup> H. Guetzkow and J. Gyr, "An Analysis of Conflict in Decision Making Groups," *Human Relations*, 7:367-382, 1954.

situation. Is there a change in a group property? Observe the group structure. Is there a change such as a prestige hierarchy or the development of cliques, that is causing dissatisfaction? Has competition developed between subgroups? Are the communication patterns too restricted? Has the class had opportunities to establish common motives and goals? Are norms being observed and are they correctly perceived by the pupils? Could it be that the group is less attractive because of some condition which has arisen outside the classroom?

If the cause of the conflict and hostility is not evident, the source of the difficulty may be uncovered by the use of reaction stories. This technique involves the use of an unfinished and interestingly provocative story which stimulates the expression of feelings and attitudes. The teacher must prepare a story which presents a problem similar to the one existing in the class. In addition to presenting in fictional form the apparent problem, there are other criteria: it should present the problem or issue in such a way that the children will react and reveal their perceptions of the causes; it should be dramatic enough to hold attention; it should be realistic enough to be plausible; it should contain characters and situations with which children can identify; and it should be suited to the age level of the class. The story is read to the class and re-read, if necessary, until it is understood by all the students. The ending may be developed in one or more ways. It may be discussed, written, or acted out as in role playing. When a group reaction is sought, the most effective technique may be guided oral discussion. However, if there is much overt hostility and conflict, individual reactions may be more revealing and practical.

A variation of the reaction story is the incomplete sentence. A series of these may include the problem that is in need of attention and clarification. The incomplete sentences, like the reaction stories, are to elicit the children's reactions. They may be either in written or oral form. Examples of such sentences are: "The reason for the quarrel on the playground was \_\_\_\_\_" "The boys said \_\_\_\_\_" "The girls said \_\_\_\_\_" "John tried to \_\_\_\_\_" "Sam became angry because \_\_\_\_\_" In answering, the children are urged to complete the sentences quickly, giving their first reactions. By surveying the results of the written responses, the teacher may locate points of agreement and disagreement that are clues to the hostility. These clues could be used as a basis for a group discussion, which would help to clarify the differences and misunderstandings and would provide a basis for re-establishing working relations.

The fact that children have loud disagreements at times does not mean in all cases that the group has disintegrated or that cohesiveness has decreased. It may be only an indication of group pressure being exerted upon a few members to conform, or it may be the group is in the process of defining the behavior which is considered

desirable, and destructive behavior may, in fact, be serving a useful purpose.

The delineation of areas of group values is important in developing a cohesive working group. At first individuals are uncertain to *what extent they agree or disagree* about values. A growing perception of shared values promotes efficiency by providing a common ground. It also gives a common frame of reference for specific goals. With the establishment of areas of agreement, and of disagreement, too, the members of a class are able to interact and cooperate. The shared values which form a known groundwork may stem from different individual motives. There may be agreement on the importance of the best possible school achievement by the children but for different purposes: to meet family standards, as preparation for further education, or for vocational needs. It is also worth noting that shared values are not necessarily conscious or systematically verbalized. The value structure of a present group is developed primarily through interaction. Of course, not all conflicts are eliminated from a group that has adequately—although aggressively—defined its common values. It is to be expected, though, that the amount of conflict in future stages of development will be substantially reduced.

Conflict and open hostility are part of the process by which pupils come to general agreement on the work tasks before them. The expression of hostility—an interactive process—stimulates a group to form a group structure more quickly than might otherwise be the case. Conflict is an integrative process when it opens, or causes to open, channels of communication. If the communication breaks down or is not permitted, the initial hostility will continue rather than dissipate. It will result in a divided, rather than an integrated and cooperative, class group.

If strong hostility or conflict erupts after the initial stage of a group's formation, the teacher can take steps to re-establish the group's cohesiveness. Usually this will be easier than the initial stages, as there are known common values which can be referred to and which will recall agreed-upon goals and ways of working.

## WAYS OF HANDLING CONFLICT

Aggression may be evident in the early stages of group development and then lessen as class members become acquainted and establish their norms and procedures. At times conflict arises and group unity must again be restored. Not a fixed and stable property, unity can dissolve quickly.

When the group or parts of the group exhibit aggressive or hostile behavior, what can a teacher do? A first step is to analyze the



spectacular (their term) and the flowers could be used in the children's rooms at home. Committees were assigned to prepare the large paper background, to design and prepare the flowers, to paint and letter the centers, and at the completion of each step put in place according to a master plan. The sixth grade had been generous in sharing a play, a guest speaker, and in helping the fifth graders to prepare to manage the school council the following year. As a result, the fifth grade had sought a means to express their appreciation and had enthusiastically decided on the farewell party.

The time for making and putting up the decorations was short because the auditorium was tightly scheduled. The class anticipated a smoothly working series of production teams, with all jobs carefully determined. Work had begun in the late morning and continued through most of the lunch hour, when the background committee was slow in getting the huge sheets of paper up because the adhesive tape did not hold well. The flower cutters and painters were getting stacked up because of a lack of working space. Arguments began over well-meant but unwanted advice, urgings to hurry were infuriating and drew strongly personal replies. Work ground to a halt while members of one committee defended themselves against another.

When the class entered the room, the teacher had to make some quick decisions. Was this a situation that required adult help at this point, or were the students able to handle the difficulties? Should he guide the group in finding the causes of the conflict? Was it possible to do this when the class members were showing signs of strong feeling and emotion?

Conflict between members or subgroups can be intense. It was a question of whether to let the feelings subside or to attempt a discussion when the class was in an upset state. Strong emotions may make the beginning of a discussion difficult to lead, or they may block any progress. Because of the pressure of time in this case, the teacher felt that the situation called for an immediate review. Children who were still smarting under interpersonal and subgroup assaults would have found it hard to sublimate their feelings and at the same time correct the kinks that had appeared in their plan of work.

This class's ability to work as a group had grown steadily. It had met many problems, worked out agreed-upon procedures, and acted upon them to good effect—although never with the concentrated hostility they were showing in this instance.

A plan was needed to keep the discussion from becoming an exchange of cutting remarks and explosive demands. The teacher adapted a discussion procedure which he had used before; he did not at this time ask the class for an opinion on how the discussion should proceed. He knew that the children needed to look for

"best" by the group as a whole. In other words, the children are establishing what is acceptable and what is not acceptable. However, if there is actual deep-seated conflict, and if the group is not helped to resolve the conflict, a split in the group may occur and cohesiveness will decrease to a great degree.

Disagreements can build up into serious conflicts if the children are not given an opportunity to examine all aspects of the problem in an orderly fashion. It is frequently the case that when children disagree a certain pattern of behaviors occur. Observation of a class group involved in a playground dispute reveals these patterns. At first only a few children are exchanging loud remarks. Others join in and clamor is heard. The noise created by many children talking at the same time grows louder. The noise and confusion results in pressure which causes the participants to become more tense and vehement in their pronouncements. Sometimes the cause of the original argument is lost or becomes confused because of the intrusion of personal remarks. If the dispute is not resolved, it can continue to grow and can become a major conflict. Children need help and guidance in settling their disputes. When teachers take the time to help the class group solve the problems of interpersonal relations, the time spent can be utilized to heighten a feeling of security and cohesiveness. The process of group problem-solving acts to create even greater unity than existed before the conflict began.

Group discussion is infrequently used to resolve conflicts that occur in the classroom or that have repercussions there and began elsewhere. It is, of course, used every day to explore subject areas, expand assignments, and plan for further study. Skillfully guided, group discussion is a useful means of dealing with conflicts in the classroom. Children who are not skillfully guided fall into a pattern of repeating louder and louder and with increasing vehemence their differences of opinion; the conflict is heightened rather than resolved. The following description is of one teacher's use of group discussion when conflict occurred.

A scowling group of boys and girls marched into the fifth grade room after the lunch period. They plunked themselves into their seats while exchanging angry looks and mutterings—evidence that there were hostile feelings toward one another.

This was the day the fifth grade was decorating the auditorium for the farewell party to the sixth grade. The planning had taken several sessions and each of the jobs had been carefully decided. Committees were self-chosen and most of the class was involved except for a few who were preparing programs. The committees were organized to carry out the flower theme and each sixth grader was to be presented with a stylized flower from the background set up on the stage. Each flower was to be centered with the graduate's name. The idea had delighted the entire class as the stage would be

background slow  
flowers ready  
glue—then tape, etc.

After each child had had a chance to speak, the teacher asked, "Are these the facts? Is this what happened?" Cindy, who always looked for relationships, said, "Yes—see (she went to the board and pointed) these tell about the background committee, these the flowers, these the printers, these the placers." Everyone agreed that the facts were there. The first agreement had a quieting and steady-ing effect.

"Are the *causes* for our problem here?" The class thought. "Those aren't the causes," said Aaron, "those are the facts. We just told the facts as we saw them."

"Yes, those are facts. Do they suggest possible reasons why you had trouble? Causes?"

The class almost visibly shifted gears. "Well, the committees got right to work and knew what they were to do," Marcy thought aloud. "We worked in our own places, too! I guess the trouble was when some people left their committee and began to fool around."

"The cause was that some committees were slower and some faster," said Glen. The class quietly explained that that wasn't a cause, but was just what happened.

"Well, to go back to what Marcy said, I think some people did do a little fooling around. But our committee needed more people to hold the paper up. Its weight pulled it down," explained Jim. "There were people on printing who were all through and we didn't leave our job done."

The teacher asked for further statements of causes, but only a few more were given. He then asked who would state the problem for the class.

Cindy, laughing, said, "I think Jim did it for us. We didn't have enough people on some jobs and too many on others, so some kids had to wait. We needed to shift where more help was needed. The order in which we planned to do things was o.k., but not everyone could do everything at once. Is that so, Jim?"

"Yes. The problem is how can we shift people where they are needed and what is the order in which they should be done," said Jim.

"Very good," said the teacher. "Our plan was essentially sound and the problem is what changes must we make to make our plan work."

Several plans for reorganizing were suggested by the students. They quickly and amicably agreed, and individuals willingly offered to change to jobs where more manpower was needed. The solution was satisfactory, and with the changes made the project of deco-

causes and to define the problem. They were angry because the work situation was not satisfactory and they did not know where to place the blame. Blaming one another was unusual for them.

As he began the discussion and continued to guide it, the teacher kept his guidelines in mind.

1. The purpose is to search for causes, rather than to just talk about the situation and bemoan the difficulties.
2. The obvious facts were known, but the children needed to explore their feelings about the facts.
3. The discussion must achieve a goal—in this case a revision of the original plan that would be practical and achieve the results that the class had envisioned.
4. The discussion should restore group harmony and interpersonal relations.
5. The students should become more skilled in group interaction and more understanding of the processes in which they had and would participate.

The teacher asked the class to quickly change its chairs to the usual face-to-face seating which they used for discussions. As they did so, the feelings of hostility were still evident. The teacher wrote on the board:

Did our plan work?

Why? or Why not?

What is our problem and how can we solve it?

Each child told briefly what he thought about the situation and, in so doing, released some tension. The first remarks took up where the arguments had stopped.

"Those background people just were slow—creepy slow!"

"Yah, we had to wait after we had our flowers ready."

"The flower people had cut, painted, outlined—and they (pointing) weren't ready yet—after all that!"

This last drew a gasp and glare from Mitch, who countered with, "We were not slow—the glue just didn't hold and then we had to go for some double-tape. If you had kept out of our way—slow!"

"The printers were o.k.—except when Red thought it a joke about the paper not sticking," said a girl.

"It wasn't too bad," said Willi, calmly and slowly, "until the background came down in one place and smeared the paint—not quite, almost dry it was."

The teacher wrote a few words on the board as each child spoke. To slow the pace and keep an orderly flow, he would ask, "Will this remind you of your fact?" The phrases were condensed to read:

pursuit. This state of affairs was observed by some of the third grade boys who were playing nearby. They stopped their game and raced after the invaders. Yelling, punching, and a general rough-and-tumble ensued. Although the third grade boys had at times tormented the girls themselves, they would not allow outsiders to attack their class members. Members of children's groups often unite to defend one another. Their defense may be physical or verbal in the case of talking, complaining, or tattling, or it may take the form of not talking. Silence, or not squealing, may be a defense of their peers.

The recurrence of a number of conflicts and violent arguments had been observed by one teacher as reported in the following account. Rather than let the unsatisfactory conditions persist and possibly grow into more serious aggression and fights, the actions taken were constructive in both a remedial and preventive sense.

During the morning and afternoon recesses and the lunch period, the second and third graders play on the black top and in the field. While there is equipment and apparatus for other games, the most popular game seems to be two square. At the noon hour when there is more time to play, the boys favor field kick ball also.

Every few minutes some child will come running to the teacher on duty, saying either "\_\_\_\_\_ is out and he won't go out!", or "They say I'm out and I'm not!"

The policy of the school has been to have a vote taken by those children who are playing in the game and who were watching the incident. This has been emphasized many times by the teachers on duty, but still the children come with the same complaints. Often a second trip is made and the teacher must insist that the students abide by the group's decision. These groups are constantly changing as there are six classes involved.

Once a week during the P. E. period I have my children play these same games in what we call organized free play. The tendencies and problems which I have noted on the playground during the recesses and noon period are present at this time also. With three or four games being played simultaneously, I am unable to see what is happening in the various groups.

I did not believe there was anything I could do to effect a solution to the problem when it occurred when the six classes were combined, but I tried to do something about the situation within my own class.

I decided to use discussion as a problem solving method and, as a guide for me, to follow the steps.

1. State the problem and define it.
2. Examine the facts from which the problem arises.
3. Consider the criteria to be used in evaluating the solutions.

rating was completed on time. Good interpersonal relations were restored, and each member of the class seemed gratified with his part and the happy outcome.

In this incident the teacher had little choice about whether to proceed with the discussion when the children were in an upset state. When a choice is possible and time pressures are less severe, a delay may be advisable. A delay in which tempers are calmed before discussion is attempted has both plus and minus values. The plus is the quieting and gaining of perspective by the group members. The minus is the solidifying of rights and wrongs in the minds. Exigencies of the situation sometimes dictate the decision, whereas at other times the teacher's judgment must determine the decision.

In the fifth grade conflict over the decorations, the teacher acted to use the situation constructively. His procedure involved the following steps.

1. Each child was given the opportunity to make a brief statement regarding the facts as he saw them. No attempt was made to qualify these remarks, as they served to release tension.
2. An attempt was made to reach agreement on some point. (These were the true facts regarding what occurred in the auditorium.)
3. The children were guided in a search to find this immediate cause of the difficulty.
4. Underlying causes were explored.
5. The problem was stated.
6. The class suggested various solutions to the problem.
7. A brief summarization was made of the progress the group had made in the discussion.

Because the group was highly cohesive, it showed an ability to express more hostility more directly with respect to its source than would a group low in cohesiveness. The desire of the group members to repair group unity and proceed toward a strongly desired goal increased the efficiency of the discussion process. The work that the teacher had previously expended in welding the group and increasing its satisfaction with the discussion procedure proved advantageous when the crisis arose.

Children often handle conflict in their groups dramatically and vigorously. The help of an adult is not always required. Chapter 4 cited an example where a number of third grade girls were playing with a large rubber ball during the noon hour. They were in their assigned play space and were completely absorbed in their activity. Some fourth grade boys suddenly appeared on the scene. They raced through the circle, grabbed the ball, and tossed it back and forth a few times to tantalize the shrieking girls. Then they took the ball and dribbled it across the play yard, the girls following in

1. When they told the teacher, she told them to go back and vote so all they really did was to hold up the game.
2. After a discussion, a show of hands (28-2) indicated that although most of the children would go out when they were supposed to, especially if they were frequently reminded in a nice way, there would always be a few who wouldn't.
3. I told the boys and girls that I did not think taking offenders out of the game was really a solution, because I felt it was important for all of them to exercise and also to learn to play fairly.

At this point some of the children expressed an opinion that there probably wasn't any solution to the problem. Because it had been raining and any suggested solutions could not be experimented with immediately, further discussion was postponed, but not before a show of hands indicated that six children believed that no solution existed, and twenty-four believed that although we did not yet know what it was, there must be one.

The last week before Christmas vacation did not offer an opportunity to continue the decision. However, when school resumed on Tuesday there was much talk of the Rose Parade and the football game on television. I asked the children how professional athletes decided when someone was out. A number in the class, especially the boys, said that an umpire called the plays.

I asked them if that gave them any ideas they could use in our discussion. Over half the class said it wouldn't work because last year a teacher had chosen some boys in her class to be playground helpers. The class still remembered the resentment toward these helpers and called them bossy.<sup>2</sup>

Because considerable interest was displayed, I postponed the planned lesson and the discussion continued. "Would it make any difference in the way you would feel, if you choose your own umpires?" I asked. They brightened up like the Fourth of July.

There was some disagreement as to the number needed. They wanted more than I felt was necessary, and this I believe was because they realized that the more that were to be elected, the better their own individual chances of being chosen. I made the decision, which was as follows. The boys may elect a head and an assistant, and the girls may do the same. In some games only the head would be required, and in others, both, with the head deciding which game he would supervise and making the final decision in case of a disagreement between him and the assistant. I also told them that

---

<sup>2</sup> I also recalled that this had not been effective and remembered having to remind these helpers, on occasions when I had been on duty, to be courteous.

4. Examine and appraise the solutions (as decided in step 3).
5. Consider the steps to be taken in carrying out the chosen solution.

One day in mid-December when the children came in from lunch, I told them that I would like to have them talk about a problem which I had noticed in the playground. I reminded them of solutions to other problems which had resulted from class discussions. I told them that I believed our class could handle this problem also. I explained that I would be writing down the things that were said so that we could remember them when we talked about it again.

I told the children that I would like for them to tell me about some of the problems on the playground and that I would like to have them start with two square. The following were typical comments.

"Some kids don't go out when they're supposed to."

"They lock the game and take the ball with them when they go to tell the teacher."

"They argue even after we vote."

"They keep changing the rules from 'easies' to 'hards.'"

On another chalkboard I wrote: "What Causes These Problems?" Some comments were:

"They won't go out when they're out."

"A lets B stay if people aren't looking out and he likes them."<sup>1</sup>

"They vote everybody out so they can get up quicker."

The time allotted for this discussion was almost over and the interest was beginning to wane, so I told the children that we would discuss this some more and suggested that they continue to think about it, especially while they were on the playground.

Three days later we resumed the discussion. I read to the children from the copy I had made of what had been recorded on the chalkboard. Then I asked them to help me make a list of solutions which had already been tried. It was as follows.

"Go tell the teacher."

"I just go out when I'm out."

"Sometimes the teacher makes someone get out of the game."

A summary of the discussion of each point was.

---

<sup>1</sup> A and B are the names of the two squares in the game and the children often refer to the person occupying square A as A rather than by his name.



to be as honest and fair as was possible. I believe that they were very impressed with the power invested in them and tried to be worthy of their positions.

At the beginning I played a very small part in the discussions. I summarized, wrote on the board, and made sure everyone had an opportunity to contribute. The children did the rest. This was the way I intended to conduct all the discussions. Toward the end of the study, because time was running out or because the class could not agree, or just because I wanted to, I made some of the decisions and announced what would be done. As an example, I told them that they could have two umpires each. I told them in which games they would use two and in which one. There were many others, and they were as happy with my decisions as with their own. They are not happy with other school-imposed rules regarding playground safety, however.

The discussions, which were numerous and spaced a few days apart, were expected by the children. I have noticed that when there is a problem, the class (most of it, anyway) is seated and calm and the children raise their hands to start a discussion. The need to blurt something out before we get into the room, or line up at my desk and tattle on each other has diminished noticeably. I believe that they have had great satisfaction in solving problems through group discussion and prefer to solve their problems this way rather than to cry, take things into their own hands, or retaliate.

Conflict and differences of opinion exist in any healthy, strong group. It is from such differences that new and better goals and ideas emerge. Some differences are essential to a live, dynamic group, but unresolved differences can cause continued irritation, bitterness, and hostility. The key question, then, is how to deal constructively with conflict, rather than how to completely avoid or eliminate it.

An effective class organization is marked by its ability to handle conflict and to use differences to advantage. It has an organizational structure which encourages the growth of leaders and members (teachers and students) skilled in processes of effective interaction, confidence, loyalty, and cooperative motivation to find solutions to conflict.

## AFFECTIVE CAUSATION AND CONFLICT

Conflict within children's groups may be either substantive or affective. As in groups of older members, there are times when the matter at stake is so essential and real that children will rise to a

the umpire could not participate in any game in which he was umpiring.

They were very anxious to vote right away, and two boys and two girls were chosen very smoothly by the democratic process. Before they voted, I tried to impress upon them that it would be very important that they voted for someone who was aware of all of the rules and who would be very fair in disregarding personal friends and so forth.

The children were very anxious to get started and insisted that I find time to make some kind of badges before the morning recess. I cut circles from tagboard and wrote either "Girls' Umpire Room 7" or "Boys' Umpire Room 7."

At noon the class took our equipment and went to the field where they could play alone. Afterward, they came to report that the boys from other classes had joined their game and would not play fair. It was decided that if the children from other classes were using our balls and participating in our games they could abide by the decisions of our umpires.

Later the boys said they wanted to talk about a game of field kick. Since there had been only one game for the boys, only the head umpire had supervised. The game went slowly because he had to run around the field giving his decisions and he missed some of the plays. It was decided that he would watch home and first and that the assistant umpire would watch second and third.

This program has been in effect for two weeks. I have chosen activities for the P. E. period which the umpires have been able to organize and supervise. I have watched from a distance. Besides helping the children, this has been a great help to me. Being relieved of keeping my eye on the ball, I can now keep my eye on the children. This has enabled me to observe their individual social and physical development and to make plans accordingly.

Today was the beginning of the third week, and new umpires were chosen. The boys retained the same head umpire but selected another assistant. The girls chose two new ones.

In conclusion, I would like to make the following observations.

1. Children may become responsible if given responsible positions.
2. Children will accept teacher-imposed rules (perhaps even ask for them) if they have previously had a part in creating rules and solving problems.
3. Discussion as a means of problem solving can be carried over to other areas of the children's school and personal activities.

When the class first chose two boys and two girls to be their umpires, I noticed that one of the boys and one of the girls had not been entirely honest. That is, they would certainly try to get away with something if they had an opportunity. I was interested to see what the outcome would be now. These children turned out

Groups may feel threatened or feel treated without proper regard and respect by other groups, with no substantive issue involved, so they respond aggressively to the emotionally charged situation. If the conditions of the environment either tacitly or openly permit, this type of fight often occurs between children's groups.

Incident 36 has complicating factors that are no doubt related to the conflict that was exhibited. The behavior of the teacher and her attitude and the reaction of the class are among these factors and should be noted.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 36

Many times right after recess or lunch time, four girls tell on each other. Each one comes up to me to say that one of the others was not playing in her area, not playing fair, or was calling names. Of course, I don't want to enter into these matters, and usually I remind them that they should be in their seats and getting ready for class, as the other children are. Sometimes this works, sometimes not. The other day when I said something to the effect that I didn't want to hear such things and to get ready for class, Gloria did not take the hint. She was standing by my desk and she just stood there and repeated in a louder voice what she had blamed Sherry for. I didn't know what would stop her, so I just looked at her and walked away to start the lesson.

If these individuals are not complaining, they are telling some members of the class not to be friends with others. Sometimes they do this in my presence and sometimes when they think I cannot see or hear them.

These four fourth grade girls are part of a larger group of girls that do many things together both in and out of school. They seem to get along together, but every so often they have good sized arguments and threaten to fight after school. At this time they divide into several groups. The other girls are mostly in fifth grade with about three from the other fourth grade. Last week was one of the times when there was a ruckus that went on and on. The four girls were divided two against two and siding with the older girls who were divided. It was evidently about whether they should invite a new fifth grade girl, who evidently is very well liked, to go to the park with them on Saturday. My girls do not always line up with the same ones when these fights come up, it is only fair to say. When the girls are arguing in the room, I stop it. They do try to gain others—boys, too—as adherents to their side and they cause noise and bring lots of attention to themselves.

vigorous defense or attack. A physical education play day or field meet, or a program or competitive project are events of substance to children. The individual or group that infringes or interferes with such substantive matters, as perceived by the children, may face strongly aggressive actions.

Situations in which feelings or emotions are primary also generate conflict. The group has a commitment to a general idea, a reason, or a plan in the substantive type of conflict; the affective conflict is not rooted in ideas but in feelings and emotions. Disregarding an injury to feelings that are important to children may cause strong reactions. In some cases, the reaction is one of outward conflict and aggression. Identification of the emotionally caused conflict is, perhaps, more difficult to make than of a substantive conflict. Teasing a child about people or things that he holds dear or about which he feels protective touches him in sensitive areas and may move him to fight.

The factors in children's classroom groups that will cause conflict of an emotional type will vary with the age of the children and other conditions. Taunts of dummy, stupid, clumsy, will make some younger children fight, but will produce equally caustic language responses from older children instead of physical aggression. Group emotional reactions are also determined by the maturity of the students and the group norms—including the norm of what, if any conflict is warranted and countenanced and under what conditions.

The recurrence of fighting behavior and threats to fight in the following incident have no substantive causes. The situation is complicated by the girls' club that draws members from more than one classroom. The presence of the younger girls in a predominantly older group may make the achieving of status an uphill effort for the younger girls. The problems that the subgroup has in relating to the club group is extended to their own class on the playground and in the room. The achieving of recognition and of leadership status in the club group may be difficult for the fourth grade girls. Their recurring attempts to recruit children to agree with them or to support them is a clue to be noted. Although society approves ambitious attempts at self-assertion, it is possible that the girls lack the finesse and personal skills to achieve the position of influence that they desire. They may be exceeding the norm for a girl's role in this case and being so assertive, noisy, and disruptive that the class group does not respond when they ask for supporters.

Some members of a group are better able than others to carry on conflict activities. The strains that the conflict imposes are so distasteful to some individuals that they completely retreat or avoid them, or, at the other extreme, appear to enjoy the excitement and challenge of being in the midst of the fray. Both the affective and substantive aspects of a group may be led by the members who can withstand the strains of conflict.

the feelings of the teacher, the four girls, and the class. The presentation will be made with the second group as an audience.

6. The participants are reminded that they are to create real-life situations. For good results they should imagine themselves to be in the situation. Because a minimum of time for studying the personality of the teacher is available, a volunteer may be solicited. He may feel that he is in sympathy with and would act in much the same way the teacher did, or he may feel he understands the teacher's behavior well enough to simulate it.

The four girls and the other class members are chosen.

The group should reread the incident preparatory to portraying the situation as it was described. (This is part of question 3.)

Plans for the reality practice should be talked out as to what is to be included, the order of events, and so forth. No prepared lines are used, but players are to speak spontaneously. It will help to arrange furniture and a few simple props to give a feeling for the setting.

7. The group should try to incorporate the plans while playing the incident spontaneously. The second group observes to gather ideas to add to their simulation.

8. Group 2 gives its reaction to the simulation. The instructor may help by focusing the discussion on the training question.

9. The second assignment is: while group 1 was preparing the simulation which was just presented, group 2 was planning a simulation which would show improved teacher action. This would help to answer question 4 in "Training Problems."

10. While the first group was preparing, group 2 was sharing ideas on what teacher actions would be more effective than the ones described in the incident. They would plan to give one or a series of instances of affective conflict behavior similar to the recurring instances about which the teacher wrote. The teacher, the four girls, and the class members would be chosen. A brief outline of the sequence of events, and brief characterizations and how to project them would be made. Agreements are more quickly arrived at when some such tangible device is used. The brief outline is put aside before the simulation is played. Its purpose is not to provide an agenda but to act as a guide to spontaneous actions.

11. The second group should take a few minutes before it presents its simulation to compare ideas from the first play and the plan it had developed. If necessary, changes could be agreed upon at this time.

12. The second group simulates its reality situation using

Sometimes I try to treat it lightly and make no big issue, but if I have to I use firmness. That is, quiet firmness, such as, "Please, no more of that in school!"

After lunch and recess the complaints take time away from activities scheduled at these times. This happens more often than I like or think is good for the class. There are times—a week or more at a time—when it is peaceful. A few of the pupils in the class continue to work on their own while these complaints crop up. Most of the others appear to be listening to the various complaints. How these four can come up with so many things must be something to listen to, by the way, and could seem amusing, except that they are in deadly earnest and interfere with work. These interruptions prevent me from beginning work with the class on time.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. What are the causes of the conflict behavior that is described? Do the causes seem similar, or do they vary?
2. Analyze the incident for other factors that contribute to the conflict behavior. Include both positive and negative.
3. How did the teacher act? What were the results?
4. How may the teacher handle the situation in such a way that the rights and well-being of the subgroup of girls and the whole class are considered and cared for?

### Action Steps

1. Reality practice will be used in two ways in this session. The first assignment is: the incident is read to the whole group by the instructor. He asks that they listen for purposes of discussing questions 1 and 2.
2. The instructor leads a brief discussion of the causes and contributing factors of the conflict described in the incident. The incident will be clarified to become more real through the discussion process and to prepare for the reality practice which is to follow.
3. The class is divided into two groups.
4. One group is assigned to play the incident as it is described. It is to use members as the teacher, the four girls, and the other fourth grade class members. They are to have flexibility in deciding whether to play one instance of the conflict behavior or whether to play a series of instances.
5. The small group is to attempt to show in an authentic way the teacher and class behavior, the resulting actions, and

the plan for improved teacher behavior. Group 1 is the audience and is observing for training question number 4.

### Concluding Activities

1. The instructor provides each person with the following check sheet, which is to be filled in without group discussion of the simulation by the second group. The instructor makes it clear that individual evaluations are wanted, there are no right or wrong answers, and the careful evaluations should be backed up with the person's own reasons.

2. Explanation of the check sheet is given and any questions about its use answered. Time is allowed for completion of the check sheet.

3. When everyone has completed his evaluation, a brief discussion of points of most interest to the class may be conducted. The reasons for each person's evaluations may be explained.

4. A tabulation of the individual evaluation sheets may be made, if a rating from the class is desired.

## STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT IN CONFLICT BEHAVIOR

The teacher who wrote the following incident was aware of the stages of development in the aggressive behavior of the class. He cited the beginning of the behavior and indicated the changes or stages. There is a sense of accumulating conflicts which placed the members of the class under increasing tension.

The increase in conflict indicates that the initial causes were not recognized or were not given attention. The teacher may not have been alert at the beginning of the trouble, or he may have taken action that was inappropriate or ineffective. It is possible that his action or his lack of action left conditions so unsatisfactory for the children that the ground was prepared for further expression of hostility.

The spread of the outward expression of hostility is to be noted. It began with boys, but the teacher reporting the incident did not identify them and throughout he places the aggressive behavior in a group context. The dissatisfaction spreads to the girls, who begin to fight among themselves. Next, bickering and aggression occur between boys and girls. If the school and community were one in which fighting is an approved behavior only for boys, the entry of the girls could produce anxiety and tension on the part of the children.

## CHECK SHEET FOR EVALUATION OF INCIDENT SIMULATION

	Not Applicable	Weak	Adequate	Outstanding
<u>The Plan</u>				
Purposes				
Adequacy of purposes				
Realistic and workable				
Creative or innovative				
Predicted results for class				
Predicted results for four girls				
<u>Teacher Behavior</u>				
Understanding of problems				
Ability to develop plan				
Implementation of plan				
Expression through verbal means				
Expression through nonverbal means				
Flexibility in changing situation				
<u>Behavior of Class</u>				
Active participation				
Understanding of problems				
Willingness to help with needed changes				
Satisfaction with discussion				
Satisfaction with anticipated plan				
<u>Other</u>				



from class to class. In some, pupils periodically re-examine and possibly modify agreed-upon limits.

Another kind of conflict is that in which the emotional involvement is so predominant that no settlement of a problem is involved or required. An illustration of this would be a normally quiet and well-behaved class that comes into the classroom in a noisy and upset manner. What happened that is causing the hostile behavior may be clear to everyone. Also, the cause may be clear. The class may still be upset or angry. The teacher who lets them state or explain individually what happened and why will assist the group to resolve the facts. It is not a matter of taking action or of change, but of coming to grips with the facts and their feelings. Children who witnessed an accident or who saw a fair rule applied to their disadvantage need time for the significance to become part of them. They are not resisting its fairness or its inevitability. The teacher, in addition to letting them clarify, avoids moralizing. He may be tempted to say, "If you had been where you should have been . . ." and the moral is stated to his satisfaction only. In such emotionally charged situations, no settlement of problems is required. The release of feeling comes for the class when it is allowed to talk about what the incident was and why it occurred. For some children, the meaning, as they perceive it, falls into place in the process.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 37

There is a classroom in my school that can be described as one of constant quarreling and bickering. This state of affairs seemed to begin with a group of boys who became involved in a classroom quarrel which developed into boys splitting up and taking sides. I should say that I supervise this class on the playground and sometimes in the lunchroom. When the boys have had their trouble and argument in the classroom, they come exploding outside to the grounds and I can tell at once that something has happened. Of course, I don't know what.

Following the fights among the boys and the factions that were formed, the situation advanced to a stage where the girls were having trouble getting along with each other in general. Then the boys and girls quarreled among themselves.

The negative feelings are manifested by the children refusing to sit by other children and by negative comments made by some individuals to other individuals. At the lunch table recently some of the girls refused to take the remaining seats because it meant sitting by girls with whom they were then feuding. Despite the teacher saying that they should fill all the seats (we are rather crowded and were on that day), the

The development and the acceleration of the aggressive behavior through a series of stages indicates that there was a time when this was not a "bad class." It had previously operated with some success, and the management problem is to restore the class to its former behavior and feeling of satisfaction. The move to the extreme degree of hostility and tension means that the group was not able to restore its behavior and operation to previous levels. The desire to reduce feelings to a less intense level is usual after an episode of high aggression. The equilibrium of a group is maintained at a relative position, with swings upward when there are exhilarating happenings, to swings downward when things become dull and routine. The dynamics of change in some groups would be within a narrow range; in others the intensity of response and feelings represents a much greater range. The class in the incident is evidently capable of fairly strong expressions of aggression. Because the group is not able to act on a more equitable level, they are possibly building a tolerance toward aggression as they continue to fight.

The effects of sustained aggression and tension in the class are beginning to be seen. Attendance is one indicator of the attractiveness of the group situation for pupils. The drop in attendance is an indication of a lack of satisfaction in the group. In the incident there is some cause to believe that some children are using feigned illness to avoid an increasingly unattractive situation.

Different kinds of conflicts occur and serve different purposes for the group and the members. One kind of conflict is used to settle the limits of what is best or what is fair, and so on. It serves to establish the range of behavior and attitudes that will be observed by the group. What is included in the range and its extent is a distinguishing feature of each group. In early stages of group development the norms the group will later accept and abide by may be determined by bickering. If petulant quarreling and minor altercations persist, however, the group needs help. It cannot unaided resolve its own needs. Because the values the group is trying to establish are elusive, the children are unable to express them in words; however, the need for guides to agreed-upon ways of thinking and acting is real to the students. If the teacher is sensitive to conflict, he can help the group by giving them an opportunity to settle immediate, and often small, issues. Often members can generalize so that the norm will be usable in other contexts. This is a minimal need in some schools and classes because of the continuity within the student body, staff, and community. Other groups need more time in early stages of development to settle to their satisfaction the limits of their own behavior. The amount of maintenance needed to perpetuate such pupil-held limits varies

- (d) Exactly how did the class show aggressive feelings?
- (e) What should the classroom teacher do at an early stage to improve conditions?

- (f) What should the classroom teacher do at a later stage (as in the incident) to improve conditions?

3. Divide the class into two parts for reality practice. Each subgroup is to play the situation and suggested solution for a different stage of group development. They will do this simultaneously.

4. One group is instructed to consider the situation early in the development of the class. The sources of the aggressive behavior are to be unclear. In preparation for the reality practice, the group is to devise the way in which the class behaves and the teacher's procedure that would best meet the situation. Other elements may be added in the reality practice if the group decides they would be appropriate to the class and the situation described in the incident. There can be pre-planning of what the unclear causes are to be as they are disclosed in the playing, they may be developed spontaneously during the action, or they may remain unclear. The teacher may volunteer or be chosen. The actions of the class should be discussed and defined by the group prior to the practice. When it is ready, the group conducts its reality practice.

5. The other group is instructed to consider the situation as it existed, late in the development of the class. The time could be established as that in which the incident was written. Former stages of the development of the hostile behavior are then known; sources or causes of the aggressive behavior are to be unclear. The group is to plan in preparation for its reality practice the time, the way in which the class behaves, and the best teaching procedures to meet the situation. It should consider the unclear causes and how it will deal with them. The causes may be predetermined, develop spontaneously, or remain unclear. The group may decide that the regular teacher is to be replaced by another teacher (for reasons of illness, promotion, reassignment, or the like). The newly assigned teacher can be part of the conception of the teacher. The part of the teacher can be assigned or a volunteer used. The actions of the class are described by the group. When it is ready, the group should engage in the reality practice.

6. The class or large group reassembles. Each of the two small groups again plays its interpretation with the other group as an audience. Changes can be expected to occur in the second playing of the situation because of the spontaneity of the situation, the institution of new actions during the proc-

girls moved to other places. They make fun of any unfortunate happening to an individual. One boy who is always very clean and neat, but who comes from a family that has less than most of the others, sometimes has clothes that are handed down. I have heard them say cutting things about his clothes and they seem to be trying to tempt him into an open fight. He is a little smaller than most of the boys, but is not a weakling.

There is fighting, of a kind. It has never happened when I have been in charge of the play area. There are undercurrents about fights on the way home and there have been instances of some pretty hard bumps and pushes in the corridors that are questionably accidental. Our school tries to give children as much responsibility as possible in moving from place to place in the building, or from classroom to playground, and we avoid leaning on the children every minute. We do try to keep an eye on them from a discrete distance. Most classes like this and respond well.

Sometimes individuals for no apparent reason give others a real verbal lashing. The situation in the whole class is extremely tense and unpleasant, and there are absences which I am sure are not due to bona fide illnesses.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. What would the teacher do to improve a class situation in which there was much conflict stemming from unclear causes?
2. How would the teacher re-establish a good group feeling when the class had split? Consider the splits that developed at successive stages in the incident: conflict in boys' subgroups; conflict in girls' subgroups; and conflict between boys and girls.

### Action Steps

Reality practice with a summarizing review or critique.

1. The instructor reads the incident as a preparation for reality practice.
2. The instructor leads a brief discussion based on the incident.
  - (a) Who was reporting the incident?
  - (b) What stages had been shown by the class?
  - (c) Why was the source of the conflict unclear?

the group as a possible avenue to relieve or change the frustrating conditions. Relief of frustration may seem desirable even if it has no prospect of substantially changing the causes. Enjoyment of the conflict may have no relationship to conditions that cause resentment, unease, or feelings of pressure. For no apparent cause the class may in good spirits urge on the fight. Such light-hearted, unmalicious enjoyment would not be present in a group that was generally satisfied, working, and achieving well. The approving behavior of the group could signify that boredom and routine have become oppressive, and the excitement and fun of a quarrel and fight would enliven things. Sometimes the fun is relished more by the class members because the situation keeps them safe from the danger of physical combat. The danger of audibly encouraging the combatants to continue the altercation in the classroom when it is not the prescribed form of behavior is another fillip to heighten festivity of the occasion. Individual members will court danger by testing how much they can say, how loudly, and for how long before they are reprimanded.

The status of the individuals in a conflict situation and the resulting support and encouragement, or other behavior, by the group is still another variable. If leadership status was ascribed to the two boys in the incident, the group may support those whom they admire. Other levels of group acceptance of individuals would elicit different reactions from the class. It is conceivable that low-status boys or peripheral members might call forth group action of the kind that is described by the teacher. In that case, the conditions within the group are different and can be generally predicted.

Other possible variables in the group support of the conflict would be that the individuals were carrying the group's real concern for substantive matters, or that they were quarreling over normative issues that the class desired to resolve.

When a group is only slightly, or not at all, distracted by conflict between two or more members, it is not a group problem. They may, further, show little interest in or involvement with the source of the conflict or its progress. If a student in such a group situation is asked about the conflict, he will say, "Oh, they are always fighting," or "They just fight for nothing." The situation, then, is not a group problem and does not require group techniques, but can be approached through the individuals who are involved.

The steps in the process of resolving a conflict are given as a practical and flexible guide. The hows or skills, which are briefly explained, are crucial to the success of the procedure. Practice in their use is essential and is provided in the simulation training.

1. Set guide lines for discussion.
  - (a) Everyone may speak, but only one person may speak at a time.

ess, and the lack of a prepared script. If there is enough security in the group, another person may play the teacher. This will give another perception of the teacher and will keep the class alert and its responses fluid.

### Concluding Activities

1. At the close of the simulation, the instructor conducts a review or critique. A critical look is taken at the manner in which the two small groups conducted their operations. An attempt is made to be honest and searching, to face the failures and their reasons, and to understand the basis for the successes. The object is to make the critique valuable, and this is to be made clear to the class.

2. The critique will be conducted with the entire class. It can be used effectively, also, with small groups or individuals.

3. The instructor helps the members of the class to share and compare their reactions to the classroom as they observed it in the simulation. He will emphasize the most meaningful and promising teacher skills as shown in the simulation.

The instructor guides the thinking with such questions as

- (a) What was the most important thing you think you learned from your experience in reality practice?
- (b) What changes would you make if you could engage in the simulation situation again?
- (c) Were the skills that the teacher took intended for immediate, emergency effects?
- (d) Were the teacher skills designed for the long run?
- (e) Other questions and comments.

4. The instructor summarizes as precisely as possible the learning that has taken place.

## INDIVIDUALS IN CONFLICT WITH GROUP SUPPORT

Conflict between individuals who are members of a group may or may not involve the group. If the class is involved, the teacher should use techniques for handling the group as a whole. If the class is not involved, individual approaches are required.

In the following incident the quarreling and aggression between the two class members did involve the group because the members took sides. Several causative factors may operate in such situations. The incident provides clues for some, but not for others.

The group may enjoy the conflict and urge the individuals to continue. This may be an indication of frustration or dissatisfaction within the group. The actions of individuals could be used by

- (a) Can we prevent the incident from recurring? or, What can be done?—(not how).
  - (b) Ask for suggestions, ideas—a plan, not punishment.
  - (c) Will the suggestions work? Examine them.
  - (d) Get agreement on a plan of action—a trial plan to see if the plan will work.
  - (e) Redefine or restate the plan of action. "We do this, etc., and we see if it will work." Emphasize the trial aspect.
7. Appraisal.
- (a) Make positive appraisal of group efforts.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 38

Two boys had gotten into an argument in the hall outside the classroom and, when they began pushing one another and getting louder, had finally been sent inside the room by a service guard. We have recently reorganized in the district and the middle school draws children from four schools. This is new for us but, in general, is working smoothly. Most of the teachers teach only the subject that is their specialty and the students come to us, i.e., moving from room to room rather like a high school schedule. These two boys had come from different schools. They are in a sixth grade and this is their first year in the middle school, although we begin with the fifths. They both belonged to my class and they continued the quarreling—this time with the class members choosing sides. I thought that they would come to blows right there, so I warned them the bell was about to ring, and they had better get to their seats, which they did.

After the class president brought them to order in an orderly way, I began the class work. In the period of getting out their books and notebooks, the whole affair flared up again into the open. The class asked me to take a side. This was not done. The class settled down to work.

At dismissal time, the class immediately started on the matter again and continued it into the hall.

### INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

#### Training Problem

1. Is this a group or individual problem? Why?
2. Why did the class take sides? Why was the teacher asked to take a side? What was the class attempting to do?

2. Clarify what happened.
  - (a) Ask what happened or what caused the conflict to occur. (Rephrase or restate if the statement is not clear. Put the word or phrase on the board.)
  - (b) Keep to the facts. Get agreement that this is what happened, and not how each person feels about the situation or why the situation occurred.
  - (c) Ask individuals in the groups if they agree to what happened. By the time agreement is reached as to what occurred, the emotional tone in the group should be somewhat lowered.
3. Explore differences in points of view.
  - (a) (Why people feel as they do or how they view situation.) Put phrases or statements on the board. The teacher does not comment except to keep the group on the topic. If someone states, "I think we should . . .," the teacher responds, "Why do you feel as you do?" Put nothing down if it is not on the point. Wait for answers, but stay with the question. Persons of all ages tend to give solutions.
  - (b) Line up the points of agreement and disagreement. (They need not be sentences or phrases—just one word on the board.) There will be many points of agreement, as feelings are involved. State the areas of agreement and disagreement clearly.
  - (c) Get everyone to agree where they agree and disagree.
4. Identify the cause or causes of the conflict.
  - (a) Teacher states the real cause of the conflict or states that the problem seems to be (1)\_\_\_\_\_, (2)\_\_\_\_\_, or (3)\_\_\_\_\_
  - (b) What does the class think?
  - (c) Does everyone agree this is the cause of conflict? Source of disagreement?
5. Achieving agreement and resolving the conflict.
  - (a) We agree this is the problem—(or these are the causes of conflicts).
  - (b) "Could it be that this . . . had anything to do with the conflict?" "Or this . . . ?" "What do you think?" (Teacher diagnoses as long as it is not threatening.) (At this point the children may all be so friendly that all that is needed is a restatement of the clarification of all trouble and a positive appraisal of the group performance in resolving the conflict. Use no remarks containing *ifs*, *buts*, or *except for a few*!)
6. Plan of action.



time may be used to discuss the success of their simulation and ways to change or improve it before they replay it for the whole group.

### Concluding Activities

1. Small groups will present for the whole group the simulation that they developed.

2. Discuss the successes, or failures, in implementing the suggested steps for the resolving conflict.

The steps phrased as questions may be used as a guide for the discussion.

(a) How well did they set the guidelines for discussion?

(b) How well did they clarify what happened?

(c) How well did they explore differences in points of view?

(d) How well did they identify the cause or causes of conflict?

(e) How well did they achieve agreement, resolving the conflict?

(f) How well did they devise a plan of action?

3. The instructor will summarize the simulation and the discussion.

## CONFLICT OVER STANDARDS

The same types of problems occur repeatedly in classrooms where similar conditions exist. For example, when children must enforce rules and standards, difficulties may arise. When standards have been established as rules and when these standards have not been accepted by the group, then means must be taken to enforce them. In the incident which follows, class officers had been given the task of enforcing the rules. In this case the class officers attempted to enforce the standards by singling out certain people in the class for poor conduct.

The reactions of group members to the class officers' actions makes it evident that children cannot be given the job of rule enforcement and still have friendly, cooperative working relationships in the group. Conflict predictably results. The class officers used threat as a means of establishing order, but the group strongly resisted and class unity was threatened.

Any time children are placed in a position to judge and police other members of their own group, conflict is inevitable. Teachers cannot shift the responsibilities of control to children, although they often do and actually believe that they are using democratic practices.

3. What steps should the teacher take to help resolve the conflict?

### Action Steps

Reality practice to implement steps in a technique.

1. The instructor reads the incident or asks a prepared member of the class to do so.

2. To assure understanding of the incident and to clarify technique, the instructor and the class can briefly discuss questions 1 and 2 of the "Training Problem."

3. The steps that guide the reality practice are described by the instructor as being suggestive and conditional. Many group factors, including the general environmental factors, enter into effectively handling a conflict situation. This may change the procedure somewhat.

If time permits, the meaning and purpose of each step can be examined and spelled out. The following is the procedural guide.

### PROCEDURAL STEPS FOR RESOLVING CONFLICT

Many group and environmental factors enter into the procedure for handling conflict in a group. Therefore, the following steps are conditional and should be modified to meet the requirements of the situation.

- (a) Set guidelines for discussion.
- (b) Clarify what happened.
- (c) Explore differences in points of view.
- (d) Identify the cause or causes of the conflict.
- (e) Develop agreements for the resolution of the conflict.
- (f) Make a plan of action.
- (g) Appraise the group effort.

4. Groups are arranged to conduct the reality practice. They may plan and play through as many steps in sequence as the time permits, or they may select and concentrate on the steps that seem to require the most teacher-skill.

If several small groups are arranged, a combination of the foregoing plans may be decided upon for presentation to the entire class as a concluding activity. For example, one group may play the complete sequence of steps, and other groups may limit themselves to preparing carefully and in detail one or more steps.

5. The small groups, with self-chosen or designated leaders, conduct their reality-practice session. Any remaining

restore the group to a more satisfactory state of affairs?

4. What is to be done about the standards and when?

5. Suggest opening statements that the teacher might make.

Give attention to both the wording and the teacher's manner.

### Action Steps

1. Divide into small discussion groups of four to six members.

2. Each small group is to consider the training problems and plan a solution. The findings are recorded in the form of a report to be presented to the total group.

### CONCLUDING ACTIVITIES

1. Small groups can present their findings by organizing a panel discussion or by having a selected member present the report.

2. The immediate steps that the teacher might take to establish order and resolve the conflict are, perhaps, the easiest of the skill actions required of him. Each small group will have given their suggestions on this.

Possibly more demanding is the teacher's decision on what is to be done about the standards. The deficiencies and weaknesses of the present way of dealing with standards for behavior were evident in the incident. The question of "What is to be done?" will have drawn responses from the small groups on changes they contemplated, what plans might be developed, and how the changes and plans might be achieved. Each member should consider the adequacy of the answer of each group to this question. Then record on the grid (horizontal) your estimate of the value of the plan.

Next, consider the opening statements that the small groups have prepared for the teacher to use in speaking to the class. Does the content and feeling put into practice the plan that they made? In evaluating, give critical attention to the wording and to the manner of speaking and acting that the groups devised. The attention is not to be on the skill in delivery, although that is of unquestioned importance. Concentrate on the language and the intended manner as described by each small group. Then place your estimate for each group on the grid (vertical).

Only one point is placed on the grid for each group. It represents the value placed on the two factors. Any simple identification for the small groups may be used: numbers indicating the order in which reports were made to the class, letters, colors, or symbols.

Of course, one answer to this problem situation is not to let it happen in the first place. But it did happen, and the problems the teacher faces are compounded.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 39

It is my practice to have class officers maintain standards of conduct and keep order in the class. However, on this particular day I entered the room about the time the class usually comes to order when they return from lunch. (They normally get drinks and so on until five minutes after the passing bell rings.) The class was in turmoil. The class officers were unable to maintain any order.

What happened was that a few class members' names were written on the board for improper behavior. This was according to how the class president and secretary saw the situation. Writing names on the board of people who deviated from standards was never designated as a method of operation, but the class officers took it upon themselves to do this. Consequently members that had had their names written (and their close friends) indicated that there was favoritism shown by the officers. "If others always do it, why can't I?" or, "You just wrote our names and not your friends'" or, "You're not fair!"

After I came in and asked what was going on, there were quite a few accusations directed toward many members of the class. The class, as a whole, took varying views of the situation except that they agreed who the main offenders were. The officers defended themselves by saying that they had to do something since standards were not being allowed.

### INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

#### Training Problem

1. Teachers often are confronted with a class in conflict where group unity is threatened unless immediate action is taken. The class described in the Incident may not have had a strong degree of unity owing to the control methods used by the teacher. If this is true, what can the teacher do to make positive use of the conflict?

2. What steps might the teacher take immediately to establish order?

3. What can the teacher do to resolve the conflict and

# 10

## MINIMIZING MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS

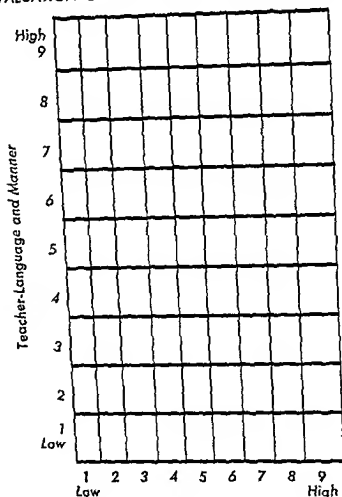
### INTRODUCTION

Previous chapters examined some management problems common to classroom groups. A few teachers might feel that if class groups react as described in the incidents then teaching is not worth the effort—that the classroom group is brought together for the purpose of learning and the job of the teacher is to plan for this learning, not to handle management problems. Some other teachers may feel that because control and leadership of classroom groups are vested in teachers, and because the authority of teachers is sanctioned by law and custom, they really should not have to deal with so many different kinds of behavioral problems. The facts are, however, that the instructional processes and the amount of learning that takes place in the classroom is completely dependent upon how well teachers perform the management functions of facilitation and maintenance. Instructional processes and the results are affected by the nature of the classroom groups and by the nature of the interaction that takes place in the organized classroom setting between teachers and their class groups.

It is true that teachers in elementary classrooms occupy a position of social control, but if the controls used are inappropriate to the situation, then additional and more difficult control problems arise. Not only must teachers deal with the forces of the classroom organization but they must be able to deal with the restrictive forces of the school and neighborhood environment. All of these forces affect instructional practices and the amount of learning that is achieved by each child.

Children place a variety of demands upon their teachers and their classroom work situations; elementary school classrooms can be one of the most important places for providing human satisfaction for children. At the present time it appears that school classrooms and the prevailing work situations often do not provide the satisfaction needed by children. Before teachers can create an atmosphere of approval and security and

## EVALUATION OF THE WORK OF SMALL GROUPS



*The plan—"What is to be done?"*

The evaluations of the class may be compiled on a clean duplicate of the grid. The evaluation of each member of each group will be placed on the grid in order to arrive at a composite. The evaluation of the class of the work of each small group will then be portrayed visually.

Individual class members may compare the values they assigned with those of class trends.

#### Comments

Teachers frequently use class officers to maintain order and control. Are class officers needed to enforce standards if the standards are developed and accepted by the group?

A defensive attitude often is adopted by many class groups towards all persons in the school personnel except the few they have come to know and trust. This is especially evident to a substitute teacher on his first visit to a classroom. Reactions to substitutes are often peculiarly marked since they usually come to classroom situations as total strangers, yet as teachers they are suspect. Class groups often attempt to thwart substitutes even before they find out what the new teacher intends. Because they feel they cannot show hostility to their regular teachers, the class members' reactions to substitutes are the means by which they express their feelings toward teachers' authority in general.

Fear and resentment of authority is expressed by resistance not only to a new person or to a substitute teacher, but also any new and unexplained policy initiated by the school's administrative staff. This may be a change in cafeteria procedure, a change in a day selected for an assembly program, or a new playground policy stating where various groups can play. Children often seem to fear the effect of a new departure. They feel, apparently, that any change in the current situation is certain to be worse than what the conditions were previously. Teachers themselves often share the same views toward any change.

The resistance any change provokes and the irrational reaction to change make it difficult for teachers to deal with the group. Some teachers attempt to dispel doubts by cajoling or moralizing; some dismiss the forebodings by ignoring them. Many times the irrational concerns revealed by children in classroom groups grow out of a strong sense of vulnerability because they are dependent upon how power is used by teachers and school personnel. The children are only too keenly aware of the troubles that the administrative faculty can bring down upon them. Uppermost in many children's minds is a dread of being singled out and made to look ridiculous in the eyes of their classmates. This is a major anxiety, but they may fear, also, a report to their parents that will bring on disquieting repercussions. It is not unnatural, therefore, for children to be perpetually on guard. They know that teachers and administrators have the power to hurt, and they do not know what may be in store for them.

The truth is that teachers themselves are often caught in the same predicament. Until they have tenure or enough experience to feel reasonably secure, the dread of being discharged is uppermost in their minds. Lesser worries that hang over them are fear of being assigned a difficult class, new instructional requirements to be met, the wrath of a parent, or "discrimination" by supervisors. In any such situation individuals are prone to worry and become anxious. Unless the children in a classroom group feel very secure, feelings of worry and anxiety sometimes become catching "and run

thereby prevent the same management problems from recurring over and over again, they must acquire a variety of new, interrelated, developable skills. The most concrete skills are technical. They involve processes, procedures, techniques, and practices; they have been the focus of attention in the preceding chapters devoted to training. In addition to technical skills, however, certain conceptual skills are needed also. These conceptual skills include, among others, accepting the existence of perceptions and beliefs which children hold about teachers and school. Another conceptual skill is related to prediction and prevention. This involves the ability to see the classroom group as a whole and to recognize and predict how changes in environmental conditions will affect the individuals in the classroom organization.

Because many teachers today work in inner city schools or in other depressed areas, an understanding of effective management practices are of particular importance to them. Children who are educationally disadvantaged have even greater needs for security, self-esteem, and independence than do children who are advantaged.

To perform their management functions adequately and to design the classroom system to minimize the human problems of the classroom, teachers must develop a considerably broader point of view and an additional set of skills from those ordinarily learned in regular teacher education courses. What do teachers have to know, what understanding must they possess to minimize the problems of classroom management? This chapter attempts to give teachers a clearer view of their role in minimizing problems of classroom behavior, as well as some practical operating information for handling problems which may arise because of changes in the school and classroom environment.

## **RECOGNIZING CHILDREN'S ATTITUDES TOWARD AUTHORITY**

If management problems are to be minimized, teachers must recognize that children hold various negative attitudes toward authority. These negative attitudes are clearly revealed in children's behavior. For example, if a child is summoned to the principal's office, his immediate reaction is, "What have I done now?" It never occurs to him that the summons might mean that he is to be told something pleasant. The same reaction often follows a teacher's request to a child to stay after school for a few minutes as he wishes to talk with him. Unless the child knows what this talk is about he usually is tense, ill at ease, and spends the remaining time marshaling his thoughts for a defense. If the talk is for a pleasant purpose, the child's relief is evident.



viewed in an unfavorable light. This creates some apprehension. Second, many children come from families in which discipline is based on threat and fear. Some have been taught to fear teachers and other persons in authority. They have come to expect that those who have authority may use it in ways that will make them uncomfortable or cause them trouble. Finally, these conditioned fears are justified, frequently, because of unfortunate encounters with authority in the school situation. Some of these unfavorable experiences with teacher-authority may be real, or they may be vicarious in that children have only heard what can happen if teachers are not obeyed. For these reasons strong disciplinary actions by even one teacher or one administrator has incalculable repercussions on classroom morale throughout the school.

Teachers need to take time occasionally to talk with children about their dissatisfactions. They may be startled to discover that a trifling incident, even though settled long before, has caused severe feelings of grievance.

Teachers who are so busy instructing that they have no time to become familiar with the children's feelings and dissatisfactions may be surprised when a student's state of mind is revealed. For example, Timothy did not like the idea that children who started trouble on the playground did not get into trouble. "Teachers don't do anything about it. They say that they will but they don't. Kids just come over—usually bigger kids—and hit me or somebody for no reason, just for the fun of it." When Timothy was asked what kind of fun it was hitting other children, he said, "That's what I'd like to know about them." When asked if he had any suggestions, he said, "You can't change things. There are school rules, and that's the way it is."

Paula liked school very much; however she said she did not like the teacher to call her good in front of the class. "It makes me feel funny for the teacher to tell others how good I am. They are my friends, but they don't like it. Lots of other kids are good too."

It is hard for teachers to realize that matters which may not seem very important in themselves sometime assume great proportions in an atmosphere of uncertainty and mistrust. However, both problems mentioned by the children were important, but were viewed as trifling by teachers who dismissed them as too unimportant even to consider. They become significant because children begin to feel that teachers in general are not interested in their problems. What can teachers do to demonstrate an interest and concern?

One course open to teachers who wish to recondition these attitudes is to embark on a program of facilitative action. A campaign of assurances and words will be useless. Teachers must employ patience and skill in making the group attractive and in handling even the smallest dissatisfactions and grievances when they arise. Teachers

full scope." In such groups the teacher's tone of voice, gestures, looks, and manner are liable to be misconstrued and wrongly interpreted. An unconscious action by a teacher may assume some negative significance to an apprehensive group and further intensify the fear.

It is very important that children have faith that teachers mean what they say. When their expectations are not fulfilled, children readily conclude that teachers will not help them when they have problems or get into trouble. Children may express complaints or grievances to other group members, but they often are very unwilling to say anything to their teachers. It seems that many children, particularly those from minority groups, are convinced that teachers will not listen to their problems. Some children express feelings that they cannot escape from punishment no matter how hard they try to stay out of trouble. It is easy to become unwillingly involved in a situation. For example, a child will say, "These kids came up and hit me just for fun. Then they tore my shirt, but I am the one that is sent to the principal's office!" Many children feel that no matter how justifiable their complaints, teachers will not give them a fair hearing. They feel, at times, they will more likely get into trouble than get satisfaction. An outside observer asked a child who was telling how hard it was for him to stay out of trouble on the playground why he did not go to his teacher for help. The response was quick. "I wouldn't do that. Teachers always say, 'If you will just think before you act you won't get into trouble.' Or they say, 'You are always getting into trouble, so don't tell your problems to me.' " This child's cynicism and antagonism was not applicable to his current teacher. His remarks were expressions of feelings about teachers that had developed over several years. He did not trust any teacher to treat him fairly when he asked for help.

Teachers may believe that it is ridiculous for children to feel that teachers do not want to listen to their problems, or that they will not respond with fair treatment. Nevertheless, it is unwise for teachers who know their own motives are good to assume that children will respond with confidence and trust. Experience and observation show that apprehension frequently exists even in schools where the faculty and administrators employ the most appropriate and facilitative control practices. Why should this be?

First, most children have a great desire to be respected and to be thought of as a good person. Frequently when teachers correct individuals in front of the group and make unfavorable evaluations of one individual, or a small group of individuals, the whole group is affected negatively. Frequent corrections of a few individuals result in the whole group perceiving itself as bad. If the whole group is perceived as "bad" then individuals feel that they, also, are

negative, his personal feelings of worth are lowered. Therefore, how a teacher reacts to the group as a whole has more positive or negative effects upon individual members than does his reaction to individual students.

Teachers who manage groups need a basis for understanding why children in class behave as they do; this understanding is even more important for teachers of disadvantaged children.

A few major propositions central to effective management practice are stated as follows.

1. The class group is a work group organized for the purpose of completing assigned intellectual tasks under the direction of a teacher-leader.
2. In a classroom situation the teacher is not a tutor working with children one at a time. The teacher meets the children all at once or in small groups.
3. The class group has a behavior of its own which is separate from the behavior of its individual members. The group has considerable influence on individuals in relation to how each feels about himself and how he learns.
4. The class group, depending upon its properties, exerts an influence on individual members. It can set limits to the teacher's efforts, especially if the teacher lacks knowledge and skill in guiding this influence into constructive channels.
5. Teaching practices to date tend to focus on teacher-pupil relationships. The teacher's skill in guiding the class group is an important variable affecting teaching success: the greater a teacher's skill in using group methods of management (at appropriate times) the greater the satisfactions of the individuals in the classroom organization.
6. The class group structure, the patterns of communication, and the degree of unity are group properties determined by the teacher's management practices. They greatly influence whether the group members are attracted to school or whether they develop a dislike and become apathetic, indifferent, or hostile.

Teaching practices at present emphasize individualized instruction to decrease disadvantaged children's apathy and noninvolvement and to increase their ability to achieve. This is a laudable effort and no one denies its value. Nevertheless, dissatisfaction with school, does not appear to have decreased substantially. This means that certain human needs are not being satisfied. What are these needs? They are the needs for self-expression and self-esteem which can be fulfilled only as the children are given an opportunity to use their intelligence and interpersonal abilities to achieve responsibility and self-control. Only then will they feel a sense of commit-

who fail to meet their management responsibilities often must fall back on threats or other inappropriate control techniques which inculcate further mistrust of the power they represent. When teachers fail to perform their management functions adequately, the children's attitudes about school and teachers become even more distorted. In these cases a great deal of time is spent in controlling both individual and group conduct. Mutual understanding must be developed and teachers must deepen their insights into the kinds of problems that bother children. Effective classroom-management practices can do much to alleviate the resentment of authority felt by many children.

## AFFECTIVE NEEDS OF DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

A great deal has been written about educationally disadvantaged children. It appears that many of these children, in spite of intensified school efforts, find school unattractive and unsatisfactory. As a consequence they often are viewed as problems by teachers, which further intensifies their dissatisfactions.

Teachers who work in disadvantaged areas, in spite of the outpouring of educational literature and the establishment of many in-service classes directed toward understanding these children, become dissatisfied with their teaching performance because of disturbances in the class group and because, at times, whole classes of children respond to their efforts with apathy, indifference, or hostility. Teachers' dissatisfactions cause them to use power and force as control techniques more often than they would if their teaching efforts produced satisfying results.

It appears that dissatisfaction with school is the major obstruction in the learning and achievement of so-called disadvantaged children. Further, an understanding of these children must be supplemented with an understanding of the underlying psychological conditions that prompt this dissatisfaction.

Feelings of personal worth, dignity, and a sense of importance do not depend as much upon the individual's position in the classroom sociometric structure, upon the teacher-pupil relationship, or upon low academic achievement as educational theory would have us believe. The educationally disadvantaged individual views the school and the classroom as part of the larger society from which he wishes acceptance. However, when he perceives that the class group, of which he is a part, is viewed negatively, i.e., is not a good group, he will not strive to belong or relate. Because there are others like him in the group, who also perceive the group as being

to be made lie in the curriculum and not in the underlying control strategies of the school.

## REQUIREMENTS FOR A HEALTHY CLASSROOM ORGANIZATION

The method of grouping children for instruction must be viewed for what it is: a strategy for organizing the children so that teachers can handle too large classes. Grouping is made not so that children can best learn, but so that teachers can best teach. Educators must examine any imposed structure to ascertain whether it is satisfying to children and whether it is possible for teachers to develop an attractive, effective learning situation under such an imposed structure.

The classroom organization cannot function only on the basis of teacher-pupil interaction. The group is unable to act effectively when it depends upon a one-to-one interaction of teacher and pupil. Teachers must be able to secure a simultaneous response from the many individuals in the class. Major changes in behavior may be effected by a small fraction of the number of teacher-group interactions that would be required to communicate with each pupil on an individual basis (even if such a practice were possible). In addition, teachers must have the ability to solicit responses and must also know how to respond to the group as a whole. Not only must they be able to initiate action but they must be able to react appropriately. Most behavior problems arise as a result of the way teachers react to group situations in the classroom.

The findings of basic research relating to small, formally organized groups make some of the requirements for an effective, healthy, classroom climate very clear.

1. If the classroom situation is to be one in which children can study and learn at their maximum potential, then problems of group integration and group functioning must be minimized.
2. Class-management practices must be employed to facilitate the development of unity and cooperation. Group members must be provided with opportunities to interact and communicate in order to establish a satisfactory, fully functioning classroom organization.
3. Members of the classroom group must be given the opportunity to participate in decisions that affect working relationships and conditions. Members should be involved in solving problems of particular concern to them, and given opportunities to increase feelings of security, confidence, and self-esteem by using their interpersonal skills to improve working conditions.
4. The classroom group must be guided to cope positively with con-

ment to the work of the class group. When disadvantaged children react with apathy and indifference to school tasks it is not because they lack the background or ability to learn. These children are using adaptive mechanisms to cope with the various demands of the school organization. The reactions that improved instructional practices are trying to change originated in control practices that have been used by teachers and school administrators. The nature of the present classroom organization and the management practices used do not meet the needs of children who wish to be accepted and viewed as having worth and the ability to be responsible and self-controlled. These children, it is believed, are constantly irked by the disparity between their affective needs and the school's demands upon them.

To adapt to the school situation and the control practices used, these children resort to any one or a combination of the devices which have been described in detail in other sections of this book. They may resist behavioral controls, absent themselves from school, or, as they proceed through each grade, become more and more indifferent. School policies and rules and the management practices used in the classroom are based on the assumption that these children will automatically accept a world in which they are required to be dependent and subordinate and which prevents them from using their important interpersonal abilities. This assumption runs counter to the nature of many of these individuals whose cultures differ in varying degrees from that of middle-class whites. Consequently, these youngsters have no choice but to react, which they do in one of two ways. They either react aggressively, or they accept the school by being apathetic, indifferent, and noninvolved. Both reactions are fairly easily recognized. What teachers sometimes find difficult to understand is that this behavior enables the children to release internal tensions and reduce frustrations.

It has been noted previously that by the time these children reach the middle grades, their behavior has become more noticeable. As the school continues to fail to meet expectations, the adaptive behavior becomes an established pattern which dominates the classroom; the children less and less seek involvement and problem-solving experiences. The assumption that these children act the way they do because of a deprived background if true at all is only partially so. This misconception is an outcome of the prevailing classroom control or discipline practices. In actuality, some control practices advocated at present are the source of many classroom behavioral problems. They increase the children's feelings of dependency, lack of personal worth, and lack of self-esteem. In short, there is an urgent need for teachers, and administrators as well, to employ new classroom-management practices. It is time that educators stopped believing that the important major changes

interpersonal relations may be poor and there is little cooperation among members. Because the egos of teachers who are faced with a defiant group are threatened, it is extremely difficult not to match force with force. Some teachers may be able to curb or repress such resistance, but only at great expense to the instructional program and individual learning.

The cause for such resistance may have developed over a period of time and have its base in the children's attitudes toward authority; to search for the cause in order to remove it is not profitable. The condition exists and quite possibly does not result from any personal characteristic of the present teacher. Teachers must use all the facilitative practices at their command to change the feelings of hostility to trust and confidence.

A class group that is dissatisfied with conditions in the classroom and frustrated because of pressure stemming from inappropriate teacher control techniques is much more difficult to diagnose than a class that is openly defiant and resistant. Such a group may exhibit one or more of the following symptoms.

1. The group applauds disruptive behavior of one or a few individuals.
2. Defiant acts of one or two individuals are approved by group as a whole.
3. The group sometimes reacts with imitative behavior.
4. The group employs scapegoating.
5. The group promotes fights between individuals.
6. Apathetic and indifferent attitudes are shown to school tasks.
7. It is indifferent about completing tasks.
8. The group is apathetic (but exhibits little problem behavior in the classroom), aggressive, and always in trouble on the playground.
9. Members are well behaved when the teacher is present—unruly and aggressive when the teacher is away or does not constantly supervise the group.
10. Some individuals are not tolerated by group—little attempt is made to be a group.

The mistake teachers make when a class group adapts to frustration by approving the behavior of individuals who create problems is to perceive these children as causes of group disruption. In the majority of cases, the symptoms the group evidences indicate that the group has problems. Of course, attempts to discipline individuals who are acting for a group do not help the group solve its difficulties and they are very unfair to the students who are labeled trouble-makers. If teachers do not diagnose correctly, management problems will increase rather than decrease.

Often when class groups adapt to unsatisfactory work conditions

- fusion, tension, and pressure. If pressure becomes too great, this state of affairs must be recognized and the pressure reduced.
5. Basic to all the requirements listed is a high degree of trust and confidence on the part of the children in the classroom group as concerns their own functioning in it. Good interpersonal relations are also necessary. These are evolved as children are assisted in developing a fully functioning integrated classroom group.

## DIAGNOSING THE HEALTH OF THE CLASSROOM GROUP

Diagnosing the health of the classroom group involves the ability to see the classroom organization as a whole. It includes recognizing how well the classroom group is functioning and how deficiencies in any one group property affect all the parts. It extends to recognizing the group behaviors that are symptomatic of poor organizational health. Hence, diagnosing the health of the classroom group depends a good deal upon viewing the class group as a whole and the total situation relevant to it. Classroom-management problems cannot be minimized unless teachers are able to detect the warning signals that indicate that the well-being of the classroom group may be threatened. Diagnosis of classroom health, then, calls for a blending of observation and analytical ability.

Teachers often experience their most difficult moments when they must deal with groups that are hostile and aggressive. A hostile, aggressive classroom group is one that subtly defies the teacher and often disrupts instructional activities. Such a group is not difficult to diagnose. Among the many symptoms that reveal this condition are:

1. Murmuring, talking, lack of attention throughout the group when tasks are presented or assigned.
2. Constant disruptions which interfere with carrying out assignments.
3. Subtle defiance, united resistance, and some evidence of solidarity within the group.
4. Over-all nonconformity to generally accepted school practices.
5. Solidarity in resisting teachers' efforts, poor interpersonal relations.

A class group with these symptoms continues, many times, to be aggressive and resistant long after the cause for their behavior is removed. Such a group may be thought of as a problem group, as distinguished from a group that has problems.

When group members act together to defy and resist teachers' efforts, the behavior is quite easily observed. The puzzling aspects may be that the group gives evidence of a kind of solidarity, yet



interpersonal relations may be poor and there is little cooperation among members. Because the egos of teachers who are faced with a defiant group are threatened, it is extremely difficult not to match force with force. Some teachers may be able to curb or repress such resistance, but only at great expense to the instructional program and individual learning.

The cause for such resistance may have developed over a period of time and have its base in the children's attitudes toward authority; to search for the cause in order to remove it is not profitable. The condition exists and quite possibly does not result from any personal characteristic of the present teacher. Teachers must use all the facilitative practices at their command to change the feelings of hostility to trust and confidence.

A class group that is dissatisfied with conditions in the classroom and frustrated because of pressure stemming from inappropriate teacher control techniques is much more difficult to diagnose than a class that is openly defiant and resistant. Such a group may exhibit one or more of the following symptoms.

1. The group applauds disruptive behavior of one or a few individuals.
2. Defiant acts of one or two individuals are approved by group as a whole.
3. The group sometimes reacts with imitative behavior.
4. The group employs scapegoating.
5. The group promotes fights between individuals.
6. Apathetic and indifferent attitudes are shown to school tasks.
7. It is indifferent about completing tasks.
8. The group is apathetic (but exhibits little problem behavior in the classroom), aggressive, and always in trouble on the playground.
9. Members are well behaved when the teacher is present—unruly and aggressive when the teacher is away or does not constantly supervise the group.
10. Some individuals are not tolerated by group—little attempt is made to be a group.

The mistake teachers make when a class group adapts to frustration by approving the behavior of individuals who create problems is to perceive these children as causes of group disruption. In the majority of cases, the symptoms the group evidences indicate that the group has problems. Of course, attempts to discipline individuals who are acting for a group do not help the group solve its difficulties and they are very unfair to the students who are labeled trouble-makers. If teachers do not diagnose correctly, management problems will increase rather than decrease.

Often when class groups adapt to unsatisfactory work conditions

fusion, tension, and pressure. If pressure becomes too great, this state of affairs must be recognized and the pressure reduced.

5. Basic to all the requirements listed is a high degree of trust and confidence on the part of the children in the classroom group as concerns their own functioning in it. Good interpersonal relations are also necessary. These are evolved as children are assisted in developing a fully functioning integrated classroom group.

## DIAGNOSING THE HEALTH OF THE CLASSROOM GROUP

Diagnosing the health of the classroom group involves the ability to see the classroom organization as a whole. It includes recognizing how well the classroom group is functioning and how deficiencies in any one group property affect all the parts. It extends to recognizing the group behaviors that are symptomatic of poor organizational health. Hence, diagnosing the health of the classroom group depends a good deal upon viewing the class group as a whole and the total situation relevant to it. Classroom-management problems cannot be minimized unless teachers are able to detect the warning signals that indicate that the well-being of the classroom group may be threatened. Diagnosis of classroom health, then, calls for a blending of observation and analytical ability.

Teachers often experience their most difficult moments when they must deal with groups that are hostile and aggressive. A hostile, aggressive classroom group is one that subtly defies the teacher and often disrupts instructional activities. Such a group is not difficult to diagnose. Among the many symptoms that reveal this condition are:

1. Murmuring, talking, lack of attention throughout the group when tasks are presented or assigned.
2. Constant disruptions which interfere with carrying out assignments.
3. Subtle defiance, united resistance, and some evidence of solidarity within the group.
4. Over-all nonconformity to generally accepted school practices.
5. Solidarity in resisting teachers' efforts, poor interpersonal relations.

A class group with these symptoms continues, many times, to be aggressive and resistant long after the cause for their behavior is removed. Such a group may be thought of as a problem group, as distinguished from a group that has problems.

When group members act together to defy and resist teachers' efforts, the behavior is quite easily observed. The puzzling aspects may be that the group gives evidence of a kind of solidarity, yet

insecurity. To minimize the problems that occur in this situation, the teacher must avoid using the *like-dislike* method of influence and must strive to develop a strongly cohesive group.

## DIAGNOSING DISAGREEMENTS

Teachers who are eager to develop harmonious, cooperative working relationships in the classroom group are often uncomfortable when they face problems of disagreement, open hostility, and dislike among members of the class. When two children cannot get along in a class that otherwise has good interpersonal relations, and if teachers are unable to handle the situation satisfactorily, the strong feelings that are aroused can spread to the group thereby reducing the over-all effectiveness of the members.

There is no one way to deal with such differences, but the usual practice of teachers is to pour oil on the troubled waters, or to try and settle each difference that arises by deciding who is right or wrong in a specific instance. The most effective teachers use a variety of approaches based on diagnosis and careful analysis of the particular situation.

When teachers are faced with two students who are involved in a heated argument or who have just engaged in a fist fight, they usually do not proceed to settle the difference in a systematic manner. If the children have been fighting, often one or both are sent to the principal's office for punishment and nothing is done to resolve their differences.

If teachers are to be helpful in such situations, they should consider three important diagnostic questions.

1. What is the nature of the dislike between the two individuals?
2. What is the nature of the immediate quarrel?
3. What factors may underlie the poor interpersonal relations?

Some of the answers to these questions may be known, but it may be necessary to sit down with the students and listen to what they have to say before making a judgment. During this discussion session, the nature of the dislike and the immediate cause of the latest fight must be clarified. The children should agree upon the facts. Arguments are prolonged and confusion is increased when the contending parties are not sure on what issue they disagree. By helping the individuals discover the real source of their troubles, teachers will be in a better position to determine how they can utilize and direct the dispute to effect both an immediate and a long-term settlement.

Often quarrels and fights among children are caused because each has a different perceptual image of the same thing. Also, each person

by approving the misbehavior of a few, by scapegoating, or by any of the other ways indicated, the source of the trouble is poor communication. Group interaction probably is so severely restricted that the group cannot function properly. Other reasons may be that authority figures are considered unfair and are feared or the group members feel trapped in a situation for which there is no appeal or escape.

Teachers who realize that dissatisfaction exists, but who have very little understanding of the behavior of individuals in organized groups, often ask the class members why they behave as they do. Children do not know *why* in most cases. When such conditions exist, teachers must use facilitative practices to increase group unity and cooperation. They must use group-decision and problem-solving processes to increase satisfaction and make the class situation more attractive to individuals.

Children in the classroom group sometimes establish their own norm for behaving in a particular situation rather than following a prescribed or expected way of behaving. Often the behavior that results is difficult to distinguish from resistant or hostile reactions. A class group that develops its own standards or norms is a unified, cooperative group. Members get along well together and they find the group attractive. On the other hand, a frustrated, hostile group is uncooperative, and often there is dissension among members. The group may be cohesive with respect to norm behavior, but once the teacher establishes a need for change the members will shift to a new way of behaving.

An insecure, dependent class that has not developed a good functioning group is often easily distracted. One reason for this is that the group itself offers no sense of security for members. Such a group may exhibit one or more of the following symptoms.

1. The students are easily distracted when any outsider enters the room.
2. They cannot adjust to changes in routine.
3. Members are easily upset by rumors.
4. Changes in the weather upset the class.
5. Newcomers to the class may be resented.

Often such a class likes their teacher but is dependent upon him. Members are uneasy and are anxious to please the teacher. The children do not recognize that a major source of their uneasiness comes from poor methods of control. Although the teacher is kind and considerate, the group is controlled by *like* and *dislike*. For example, the teacher makes it very clear what kind of behavior is liked and approved, but leaves the class with the feeling that any other kind will not be tolerated. This method of control creates a strong sense of anxiety and leaves most children with feelings of

not handling disagreements effectively are very great as the whole class group can become involved and split into two subgroups.

Whether the dispute has reached the stage of a fist fight or not, the channeling of differences into a problem-solving context will help to deal with the feelings of anger, resentment, and hostility. By using a problem-solving approach teachers can direct energy aroused by emotions into creative rather than destructive activities. When teachers use this approach they should listen with understanding and avoid being evaluative. Teachers can expect that the children involved will try to persuade them that the other person is wrong and that it is the other person who should be punished. Usually children expect punishment and do not expect that teachers will be sympathetic toward them and their problems. Each hopes, as he perceives fairness, that the teacher will be fair toward him. Therefore it is very important that teachers make every effort to listen to and understand both positions as fully as possible. They must withhold making judgments and, instead, try and get agreement on all available facts.

If teachers must question, they should word the questions so that they do not reflect preconceived judgments. Also, when they listen, teachers should set a listening-understanding attitude. By helping the disputive children to understand how the other views the situation, they can set the stage for transforming a conflict into a healthy problem-solving session. When children tell the cause of their quarrel they focus primarily on what the other person did. Frustration and anger intensifies as the other combatant attempts to defend himself. Teachers can prevent this by having each child tell exactly what he himself did and why. Following a full disclosure of how the situation was perceived by each individual, teachers can clarify the nature of the difficulty.

If teachers recognize and accept the fear of being punished and anger, they can make it possible for the participants to face their true feelings. Teachers skilled in appropriate management practices do not take the position that children should not make unkind remarks about other individuals even though they have had a serious altercation. Often teachers try to get children to repress their feelings. This approach causes children to feel more threatened and to become more defensive and in the end serves only to block any effective settlement.

After the situation has been fully described by each individual, the nature of the dispute clarified, and the feelings expressed, the students may be asked what they think can be done about the situation or what they think should be done to solve the difficulty and prevent further disputes and fights from arising. Teachers should encourage children to separate the *ideas* for solving the difficulty from the *personalities* involved. If an answer such as, "He should

interprets what happened in a somewhat different manner. This is the point where teachers have trouble. When listening to an account of a fight, they interpret what occurred in terms of their own perceptions and then judge who is right or wrong. Teachers must understand that they, themselves, as well as each child, brings to the data a different set of experiences and values. Everyone concerned views the situation through a highly personal lens. The picture which one individual describes, therefore, is unique to him, of course, the same is true of the others involved. Thus, it is not surprising that the basic facts produce distinctive pictures in the minds of all those interested in clarifying the situation.

Fights between two children may erupt suddenly, but often they have a long-term history. The hostile feelings may have passed through various stages, and the way the energy of the quarreling children is directed by the teacher depends to some extent on the stage of their dislike for one another. The power of teachers to intervene successfully is greater if disagreements have not flared into open conflict and fighting. Teachers are likely to have more influence if they begin to arbitrate before the students engage in open battle. For this reason it is important that teachers not only assess the nature of a given dispute and all the factors affecting the individuals involved, but also that they assess the stage to which the dislike and disagreements have evolved.

After teachers have diagnosed a given or potential fight between two students who have developed a mutual dislike, they are next confronted by the problem of what action to take. It may be helpful to consider what courses of action are available and which will most likely yield a permanent solution.

Assuming that the situation has progressed to the point of physical conflict, teachers have no time to plan what to do. The approaches typically used are avoidance, repression, taking sides (deciding who is right or wrong), or sending the students to the administrator's office. Once in a while the students are encouraged to fight it out.

The difficulties and dangers of these approaches are very great. Conflict between two individuals can be costly. It uses up energy that could be used to study and achieve and often makes it impossible for students to develop a friendly working relationship. Before they act teachers should consider carefully what can be done to strengthen the bonds between the disputants so that the conflict will have the least effect possible on the participants and on the classroom group of which they are members. Two people who are at great odds with each other eventually can have a negative influence on group unity and cooperation. Sooner or later the children will take sides, or they will become involved in whether the teacher was fair or not fair in handling the disputes. The risks in

the plan of action is not used after a period of time has elapsed it should be reviewed and perhaps improved.

One danger of developing a strongly unified group is that members may reject newcomers. To prevent this the students should be guided in planning a course of action to follow when a new child is transferred to their class. The problem can be presented to the class, and the children can consider all the difficulties besetting a person when he transfers to a new school. The group can decide what needs to be done to help a newcomer. Most likely the solution will involve children taking turns in acquainting the child with the school program. If so, a pattern of rotation should be specified. The plan should include not only *what* should be done but *how* the process will be carried out. The plan may need to be reviewed every few weeks if there are no transfers during that period.

## CLASSROOMS OF THE FUTURE

Classroom groups, or any other kind of learning groups, have often been conceived of simply as ways to organize children for instructional purposes. Both beginning and experienced teachers find that the majority of their problems lie in the management of these groups. Because adequate concepts and training are lacking, many teachers find they are forced to make rules that require a conformity which arouses group resistance. An ability to maintain structural rigidity is, at times, equated by supervisors and administrators with strength in classroom control. This concept of classroom control cannot be sustained even though at the present time the emphasis at the elementary level is an "in-pouring" of knowledge from the basic disciplines. For years teacher-training programs were committed to psychosocial development and achievement in learning the basic skills. At the present time national requirements have shifted the focus of education. Skill and understanding in the basic disciplines are now the major concern of the school; social learning and development are no longer primary goals.

The changes taking place in American society and the restructuring of elementary education is not likely to accelerate the development of better methods of managing human resources in the classroom. This is especially true if such practices are viewed as a return to educational goals that emphasized the development of the "whole" child and "problems of group living." Instead, improved management practices must be conceived of as a means for developing an appreciably more effective system of teaching than now exists. The most important source of increased individual achievement is the full development of the classroom system and

be more fair and not cheat," is given, teachers can accept this but ask both children to explain what exactly is meant by being fair and not cheating. Another facilitating action teachers may take is to get the children to agree on a certain procedure to follow if a fight appears to be in the offing. Teachers may suggest that before resorting to their fists they might go to the teacher for help in settling the difficulty.

What are the difficulties in this approach? Teachers will say no time is available to work with children who have interpersonal difficulties. Others may ask what they are to do about their classes when they are helping children settle disputes. Still others may state that school rules forbid fighting and that those who disobey must be sent to the principal's office or be punished. There are no quick answers to these questions and statements. If teachers wish to manage their classrooms effectively, however, they must find time to deal with the children individually. If a rule states that those children who fight must be punished, it is suggested that teachers earnestly seek to change it.

## PLANNING FOR ENVIRONMENTAL CHANGES

It was noted earlier that a well-integrated class group can adjust to distracting events such as messengers, a change in routine or rooms, and paper drives. A unified group can take changes in the environment in its stride. However, to minimize management problems, certain changes should be anticipated and class groups prepared for them. For example, teachers may not expect to be away from their teaching assignment. Nevertheless, it is always a good policy to prepare the class for the possibility that a substitute might take over the class for a day or two.

Preparing the class for a substitute consists of a good deal more than merely setting standards for behavior. Having the class establish a plan of action in the event that a substitute takes over the class makes it unnecessary to consider how the children will conduct themselves. It is taken for granted that the conduct will be exemplary. The problem should be stated in such a way that the children find it necessary to examine what help a substitute would need to successfully carry his instruction for a short time. The group might decide to make various people responsible for attendance, the seating chart, lesson plans, and other duties that might be helpful to an outsider. Whatever is decided by the class should specify action. The best plans are tailor-made to fit each group's situation and the circumstances existing at a particular school. If



and upper grades and on into high school. Students express their feelings in unacceptable conduct, slowness in performing assignments, careless work, absenteeism and, ultimately, by poor achievement. Many reasons have been advanced to explain why these children do not work to the full extent of their capabilities. One reason that is seldom given is that they do not respond to the long-accepted control practices used in classrooms—practices which further decrease their feelings of security and their sense of personal worth and dignity. Although educators are concerned over the needs of individuals from all backgrounds, they have not yet recognized one of the most important ways of integrating individual needs with educational goals—the internal organizational environment.

The implications of social-psychological research for teaching practice are inescapable. Schools can no longer remain indifferent to this new knowledge. Teachers must be trained in practices which provide better ways of integrating individual needs with educational goals. Pupil reactions and the number of school dropouts testify to the fact that many practices used today undermine children's feelings of pride, self-esteem, and their determination to succeed.

School for most children is an important part of their life. They want to give more than just time and get more than just grades for their efforts. They want to do some thinking for themselves, to make some decisions, and to feel respected and trusted. Unfortunately, present responses to these needs are usually out of step with what is currently known about human behavior in organized groupings.

The problems created by the need of the classroom group to become integrated and the need of the school organization to meet educational goals cannot be eliminated entirely, but they can be minimized. More adequate explanations of what occurs in classroom groups and improvement in methods of classroom management can help overcome the problems created by frustration in the classroom work environment. It seems quite clear that vastly improved results can be achieved in most classroom groups if there is more openness and trust, more sensitivity to the need of children for some independence, and more opportunities to build self-confidence and feelings of importance. The idea of a satisfactory classroom climate, which for so long has been only an abstraction, can be made concrete by the use of appropriate management practices.

It must be recognized that teachers not only are confronted with individual needs and problems, but are faced, as well, with a complex human network—the classroom group. Recognition that the psychology of this human group creates many problems

the skillful application of group techniques to management problems.

Major alterations in teaching practices are necessary to raise morale and increase individual achievement. More than ever established teaching practices cannot be taken for granted. It cannot be assumed that everything will remain the same, or that the same methods, procedures, and principles will continue to be as successful as they were in the past. Constantly changing times require that teachers increase their capacities to learn, innovate, and change. Certain traditional practices that have been in use for well over a quarter of a century must be altered. A social revolution is creating new realities and producing changes in the environment which often provoke hostile human reactions. Teachers must respond by keeping pace with what is taking place.

At the present time considerable emphasis is placed upon training teachers to become skilled specialists in specific subject areas. Teachers of the future may be subject-matter specialists, but they also must be able to demonstrate the managerial skills necessary to build productive and satisfying learning groups. Although teacher-training institutions have long stressed concern for individual development, successful training programs of the future must incorporate an equal concern for the human element of the classroom.

A major problem of teaching practice today is to know how to effectively release human potential in the classroom. Individualized instruction has not been effective in releasing this potential, and therefore more individualization will not solve the problem. To release human potential, educators must come to terms with the facts of the classroom as a social organization. It must be recognized that classroom groups consist of patterns of behavior. Teachers, and administrators as well, must know about the behavior of individual children and since the behavior of each child is determined to a large extent by the requirements of the classroom system, they must also know how children behave in classroom groups.

Today many schools, even some elementary schools, are targets for a rebellion that is taking place in contemporary life. Everywhere there are hostile, aggressive reactions to methods that would threaten, coerce, or dominate. Young people, particularly, are rebelling against control practices that demand dependency or that create feelings of humiliation through forced helplessness. Long-tolerated authoritarian practices, even though well administered, are openly challenged.

The consequences of old methods are most evident in inner city schools. Whole classes of children have become distrustful. Apathy and indifference, hostility and aggression are apparent at all grade levels, but more so as children move into the middle

class, and probably the teacher, forced the newcomer to act less objectionably, but in spite of changing his behavior somewhat he was still not accepted and liked. Group solidarity and even group unity that is achieved because the group is *against* something is possibly worse than a very low degree of cohesiveness. Members may derive security and satisfaction when this state of affairs exists, but the over-all working climate will not be pleasant nor will it be conducive to study and learning. The situation for the student, who has very little chance of gaining acceptance or of escaping, is very likely intolerable.

### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 40

I have an upper grade class that is composed of fairly nice children when each one is considered on an individual basis. As a group they are not very cooperative and their conduct is less than desirable. They cannot be trusted to act on their own without fairly directive guidance. It is a good natured, friendly group even though members frequently get into trouble for disregarding school rules or for not putting forth their best efforts in class.

As the year has progressed, the group has matured some, i. e., they settle down more quickly after being reminded what it is they are supposed to be doing. This group has never disciplined its own members. Usually members are delighted to participate in any little distraction caused by someone trying to be funny. When discussion is called for, two or three persons in the class (usually the same ones) have a good time taking over, which seems to delight the others who join in with them. It has, therefore, taken a good deal of effort to develop this class to the point where they will carry on a discussion and listen to what others have to say. Sometimes they still speak out with their own ideas whether they have any relation to what others have said or not.

Two weeks ago a new student entered class. Almost immediately I sensed hostility toward the student. I could not determine if this was because of his race. The class is very well integrated and this has caused no problems. The new student seemed somewhat arrogant, which may have been his defense against being new. After the first day I was asked by a girl in the class to move this student who was sitting next to her. The reason she gave was that he talked to himself and she couldn't hear what was being said. Using some pretext about the boy's ability to see the board, I moved him next to a boy who was always kind and considerate. This still did not make the newcomer acceptable to the group, and

trouble was constantly occurring between the two boys.

Soon I found that this group who had never been overly concerned with discipline and had never really been a close-knit group were forcing this boy to conform to the group standards, whatever they were, or be ostracized entirely.

Within a two-week period I have observed that this boy gradually conformed to the group wishes. He no longer makes comments that are unacceptable to the group and his arrogance is disappearing rapidly since this seems to be what really caused the group to dislike him intensely.

Interestingly enough, I have found also that this boy has caused the group to change. There seems to be greater rapport between the group and me as a result of our being "threatened" by this boy's hostility to both me and the class, and his open arrogance against us all.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem

1. What changes need to be made in this group to improve over-all group functioning and cooperation?
2. How can these changes be achieved?
3. What can be done at this point to make it possible for the group to accept the newcomer that they have been rejecting?

### Action Steps

1. The class is to divide into training groups of approximately five persons each.
2. Each training group is to assume that a new teacher skilled in group management practices is taking over this class. On the first day he assesses all the factors mentioned in the incident (and probably many more); he takes them into account before deciding on a course of action. Even in this situation there is a broad range of approaches that will be successful if properly implemented. Each training group is to decide on an approach and develop a complete plan of action that the teacher may take.
3. Each group should outline its plan on the board when it has completed the assignment.

### Concluding Activities

1. When the group reassembles members should study the various plans presented.

2. Group discussion should then proceed around the following points.

- (a) Is the suggested action made upon the basis of an adequate and accurate analysis of the situation that exists in the group?
- (b) Is the over-all plan stated so vaguely that it appears superficial and incomplete?
- (c) Where may the action plans be strengthened and specifically how may this be done?
- (d) Does the action plan offer a solution to the problem of the nonacceptance of the new boy?

#### Comment

The questions that the group members consider during the discussion call for critical comments. Some members of the small-training groups may become sensitive to the reactions of other members if the suggestions are not given in the spirit of helpfulness and with a desire to improve the action plans. Communication in this type of situation is not a simple matter. The words uttered by those assessing the plans may hold a different meaning to them than to these members whose work is being assessed. To prevent defensive reactions, the criticisms must be fashioned so that they are perceived as helpful rather than critical.

## MINIMIZING PROBLEMS OF INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

A class group that functions inadequately, i.e., is not fully unified, has a poor communication structure and noncooperative members, often develops serious problems in interpersonal relations. Sometimes such groups pick on an individual who is less fortunate or different from others. Often the behavior the class exhibits toward a child who is different closely resembles scapegoating. However, scapegoating behavior usually is not enacted in a spirit of fun and teasing. When class group members make a scapegoat of a student they express hostile and aggressive feelings. A group with poor member relations often does not accept differences among individuals whereas a united, fully functioning group will. A unified group accepts the fact that the group members are not equal in ability and capacity to work or contribute; members are not bothered because all the children in the class do not look alike or dress alike.

When groups have problems in integrating and in functioning,

members may take a joking, teasing position toward some unfortunate classmate. Perhaps all the children in the group do not poke fun at the victim, but they act as an audience and laugh while the teasing is taking place. This behavior by the group is generated by feelings of hostility toward authority, but it is not as intense as that which causes a group to make a scapegoat of a member. A scapegoat usually retires and withdraws whereas a victim of teasing and other playful but cruel behavior often retaliates. When such a victim strikes back the group becomes indignant and places all the blame on the object of their teasing because "He can't take it."

The usual position taken by educators is to suggest that teachers help the child and make changes in the individual rather than changes in the group which would enable members to accept all kinds of differences. When teachers are asked what should be done when scapegoating and teasing occur in a class group, the responses reflect their educational training. They make such suggestions as the following.

1. Discuss the problem with the child.
2. Have a teacher-parent conference and probe the background of the youngster.
3. Try to change whatever it is that prompts the teasing by others in the class.
4. Work individually with the child to help him overcome his deficiencies.
5. Appoint a "big brother" or a "big sister" to assist the individual.
6. Give the child some special responsibilities to make him more acceptable to others.
7. If the problem is physical, send the child to the nurse.
8. Send the child out of the room when teasing has occurred and make an appeal to the class to treat the boy more kindly.

Since the problem lies within the group and not with the child, such suggestions do more to aggravate the situation than to improve it. With all the emphasis upon accepting individual differences in the literature of education, it is difficult to comprehend why the problem is still perceived as being caused by an individual just because he is different. It is another case where the actions do not fit the words.

Poor interpersonal relations in a group also result when everyone blames everyone else. This behavior, which is apt to arouse strong feelings, not only poses a significant threat to good interpersonal relations, but also reveals poor group functioning. When something occurs that causes children in the class to blame one another, the teacher should take immediate action to stop the

behavior before more serious problems arise. The following incident is an example.

One day during class when library books were being checked in, Joe discovered his book was gone. He insisted that he had not lost it but that someone had taken it out of his desk. He did not name any specific person. However, two boys and a girl in the room began naming children who they thought took it. The children immediately started arguing over the problem. Some children said Joe had lost his book and others blamed two other children for taking it. Before order was restored, each individual in the class was blaming another for some imagined wrong doing.

The teacher in this case did not take immediate action and as a result, the children began blaming one another and, undoubtedly, interpersonal relations deteriorated quickly. Had the teacher taken action immediately following Joe's announcement that his book was missing, and had the children suggested all the possible places the book might be, the situation could have been turned to advantage. Of course, if the teacher did not pose the problem carefully, the children still might have responded by blaming others. Many management problems can be avoided or minimized if teachers take immediate action to prevent a potential and more serious difficulty from arising.

#### INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 41

We had already started the lesson when a tardy pupil, James, entered the room. Snickering and low comments could be heard at first, and then the general amusement gained momentum.

James was a very underprivileged boy and his capacity for doing class work was low. He was usually unkempt and often wore torn or patched clothing. Sometimes the sole of his shoe flapped, or he would wear sneakers that were so ragged his bare, dirty feet were exposed. The class members often poked fun at him in a sly way, and often he was the object of jokes and pranks. Usually he responded with anger and would swing at someone. This would get him into trouble, which amused the group even more. Often attempts were made to gain class cooperation for treating him more kindly but no amount of appeal or even scolding changed the situation much.

This particular morning the amusement caused by James' entering the room was due to the fact that he had a new haircut. It was apparent that the barbering had been done at home.

Instead of the bowl-on-the-head technique, slashes had been taken indiscriminately at every angle. The sight was amusing, but it was pitiful as well. It seemed that pandemonium followed his entrance. Unkind remarks were made which enraged James. He walked toward his seat and began swinging wildly at his tormentors. The feelings of amusement quickly changed to feelings of anger and indignation. The youngsters demanded to know why James couldn't take a little ribbing without flying off the handle and striking out at someone. They pointed out he often struck people who hadn't even teased him.

Situations of this kind disrupt the work periods, much time is wasted, and nothing seems to help. The class teases James because he gets angry, and James continues to react with anger, so it is a vicious circle. *The only answer seems to be to remove the boy, but unfortunately, this is not easy to do.* Besides, it does not seem fair to remove him, even though he (unwittingly) often creates complete disruption of work.

## INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

### Training Problem:

1. What does the behavior of the class group toward James indicate in terms of a group problem, i.e., what are the possible conditions which cause a group to react as this one does? Once the behavior is analyzed, where does the teacher begin to make a change?

2. The incident describes a situation that occurred one particular morning. Most likely the teacher tried to handle the situation and stop the tormenting but was not successful. What could the teacher do to handle the immediate situation and prevent other problems from arising?

### Action Steps:

1. The class is to divide into two equal sections.
2. Section A will take training problem 1. A leader should be selected to conduct the discussion.
3. While section A is discussing the first training problem, section B prepares for reality practice. In this exercise members of the training group will select people to play the parts of the teacher and James. The remainder of the group will play the parts of class members.
4. During the preparation period all members of the training group will assist in planning how the teacher might handle the immediate situation. If more than one method seems prof-



itable, two teachers may be selected and the reality practice performed two different ways.

### CONCLUDING ACTIVITIES

1. The reality practice is presented to section A whose members act as observers. It should continue until it appears that some progress has been made or cut-off at some point if it appears that the approach is not successful.

2. Following the presentation, class discussion is used to evaluate the procedures observed. What reactions do the observers have to the scene as it was played?

3. The group may list all the things the teacher did to try and minimize the problem which occurred, and note which were successful and where improvement was needed.

4. Group A may report what long-term plans are needed to change this type of group reaction to an individual.

### Comment

This type of group problem is difficult to handle and often teachers' first attempts will not be wholly successful in preventing other problems from arising. Ordinarily teachers have very little opportunity to practice and improve their skills in handling problems that occur suddenly. Also, teachers have few chances to see other teachers at work. Careful analysis of the steps taken by the teacher and the group reactions that resulted should help to increase teacher skill in handling difficult situations of this sort.

## TEACHER DIAGNOSIS AND ACTION

The nature of management problems and the manner in which teachers can successfully meet them has been developed in the preceding sections of this book. The simulation practice has added skills to the teacher's repertoire and from this practice has come a body of knowledge to serve as a guide for the teacher in the practical world of the classroom. The knowledge is both abstract and generalized; it serves as a guide to the teacher's diagnosis of management problems and his subsequent actions.

The diagnosis of a classroom-management problem includes a description of the behavior, properties and, possibly, the cause and the course of development of the problem. In the diagnostic process the teacher examines and studies factor after factor in a

specific problem situation. Diagnosis and consideration of appropriate action may occur together or so closely that they seem to occur simultaneously. This close relationship exists because the specifics of the diagnosis have implications for what and how the teacher will act, or, in other words, what action he will take and in what manner. The teacher uses his *action* in relation to a management problem as the empirical test of his diagnosis. Success corroborates the diagnosis, failure negates it and indicates that rediagnosis is required. Diagnosis and action incorporate the teacher's understanding of the theory.

The teacher's approach to diagnosis and action is a practical one. In order to achieve the practical results that he wants, the teacher should be warned against two common fallacies. One is the concern of research workers and behavioral scientists with causes, or their consuming interest in finding out how a given situation came to be. Etiology, or the science of causation, is concerned with diagnoses different from those of the teacher who deals with here-and-now problems. The search for complete or detailed knowledge of causes can lead the teacher astray. The identification of the causes does not mean that the teacher can or should work at those causes. They may have had their beginnings and most telling effects at an earlier stage in the development of the class group. Strategies to help restore and maintain the functioning of the class may require that teacher actions not be directed to the original causes. A general guide would be to employ diagnosis of a kind and in the amount necessary to deal with present conditions in order to bring about a change.

The second fallacy is expecting laboratory-like precision in prediction and control to be carried over to the classrooms. A predicted outcome may fail because of changes in the class situation in the time that it takes the teacher to employ his plan of action. Because of the constancy of change in the classroom system, the teacher cannot rely upon an oversimplified one-two-three order of diagnosis-treatment-results. By calculating the effects of change and expecting the unforeseen, the predictive accuracy of the teacher is increased. A simplistic view of cause and effect gives way, then, to one that recognizes, accepts, and uses the dynamics of change in the diagnostic process.

Diagnosis of a particular classroom problem requires that the teacher take the following general steps:

1. Analyze the present situation.
2. Determine the changes that are needed.
3. Make the changes that are indicated by the diagnosis of the situation
4. Stabilize and maintain the new situation.

In the *analysis of the present situation*, the teacher considers the surface problem and estimates whether it is the real problem. If it is not, he analyzes the clues he possesses at this point that might indicate what the real trouble is. He pinpoints not only what the problem is, but the contributing factors and the context in which it occurs. The self-supplied answers to why, who, when, and where will assist the analysis. Seeing the relationships and sorting out the significance of the given facts in such relationships is next. When the teacher has accomplished this difficult and demanding step to his satisfaction, he is prepared to move on to step two.

*Determining the changes that are needed* is based upon the assessment of the situation and the relationships between the facts as perceived by the teacher. Not only what changes are needed, but the resources available to make such changes must be considered. The resources include the teacher, the class members, other people in the school or community, and facilities or equipment. Effecting the change usually requires a plan with carefully devised stages, and the introduction of the chosen plan is crucial. Unless it is successful, the later stages may be unnecessary or may be weakly and haltingly implemented. The time at which the changes are to be made and the circumstances under which they will be implemented must be decided. The probable results, which should include the effects on the problem and its contributing factors, should be considered. Also to be taken into account is the possibility of new side effects or the ballooning of now benign conditions into problems.

*Making the changes* that are indicated by the diagnosis of the problem situation is the step in which the teacher implements the plan with its sequential phases. The test of his skill is the extent to which he can involve the class in the problem, the changes in behavior that are achieved, and the feelings of satisfaction and respect that individuals develop for the group effort.

A new condition evolves from the changes—procedure, attitude, goals, norms, or interpersonal relations. The teacher must next take action that will help the class stabilize its new plan or behavior and continue to maintain it. At this point he must demonstrate verbally or nonverbally, approval and supportive behavior.

The foregoing process of diagnosis, implementation, and maintenance was designed for the guidance of the teacher; the group's place is implied, however, and should not be overlooked.

The diagnostic steps of the group are similar to the analysis performed by the teacher. To achieve change, the group, too, needs to recognize the problem, diagnose it, and act upon the diagnosis.

## INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 42

A. This is my fourth year of teaching and I have what I call a high-tension class. They were put together as a group that could not work independently and could not function individually without constant supervision—both of which create many problems, the greatest of which is that there are thirty-five of them and, I thought at first, a completely hopeless situation.

We had had several contagious noise incidents from the first but they weren't so severe that they persisted for long. I would either ignore them or simply stop what I was doing, stand in front of the class, and look at them until they had all gotten back to work.

One day we had to cut P. E. short because of rain. We got back in the room and Mark took his social studies book out of his desk, slammed the desk, then slammed his book down on top of it. As usual, I tried to ignore it, but after the third time and six slams I walked to his desk and told him not to do it again. While I was telling him this, another boy who had been disciplined earlier, started doing the same thing. I went to his desk in the front of the room and started talking to him about it. My back was to the rest of the class while I was talking to him and suddenly there was a general outbreak of desk and book slamming all over the room. I continued talking to Charles and ignoring the noise, but it continued until I had finished my conversation with Charles and turned back to face the class.

### INSTRUCTIONS FOR SKILL PRACTICE

#### Training Problem

1. What factors in the situation are related to the problem behavior?
2. What is the problem?
3. How can the teacher approach the class with the needed changes, involve the members, gain acceptance, and have some assurance of good results?

#### Action Steps

Diagnosis of the problem in the incident and tape-recording of teacher's approach to the class.

1. The instructor will present the incident to the whole class.
2. He will explain the four-step guide for the teacher's use in diagnosis.

3. Each person will work independently on the first three steps. Step 3 is to be recorded by each person (working in a small group) on the tape recorder. However, each preparation is to be an individual, not a group, production.

4. Using the four general steps as a guide, each participant should write his analysis of the present situation (step 1). This may be done in brief form or as an outline.

5. Based upon his individual analysis, the participant will determine the changes that he thinks are needed.

6. Next, each person will prepare a draft of the remarks, explanation, and questions that he would use in launching a discussion with the class described in the incident. Each person will assume the role of the teacher.

7. The class is arranged in small groups. Each person presents his diagnosis (steps 1 and 2) to his group and immediately, without drawing out the group's reactions or suggestions, records on the tape recorder his prepared approach to the class (step 3).

8. After each person has presented his diagnosis and made his recording, the recordings are played back to the small groups.

9. The members of the group should address themselves to

- (a) How well was the present situation analyzed by the person?

- (b) Was the determination of needed changes sound and practicable?

- (c) Did the recording show that the person was able to effect the changes that he had included in his diagnosis?

(The exercise does not require step 4, stabilizing and maintaining the new conditions.)

10. The group selects one (or more) recordings that best exemplify understanding and skill in the use of the diagnostic process.

### Concluding Activities

1. The entire class reassembles. The previously chosen recordings are played, one or more from each small group.

2. The instructor summarizes the progress of the class in utilizing the diagnostic process and in the application of skills in the recordings.

## INCIDENT-SIMULATION EXERCISE 43

B. At certain times during the school day, usually during a study or work period, I become involved with the problems of

an individual pupil. After a while, I suddenly become aware of the fact that the previously quiet and stationary group of fifth-grade pupils is noisy and many individuals are wandering about the room. It appears to happen quickly, unobtrusively, and almost unaccountably. I have forced myself to try and observe and to track down just how this behavior arises.

It usually starts, it seems, with an apparently casual, unpremeditated move of one pupil. Then, almost automatically, as if by some pre-arranged signal, other children casually arise and move to some part of the room. They do such things as walk to the globe, go to the encyclopedias as if they were looking something up, visit the pencil sharpener, the water fountain, or some other pupil. It is astonishing to suddenly look up and find children out of their seats and in all parts of the room as if it occurred by magic! Once this class migration is well under way, it is time-taking and somewhat difficult to restore the classroom to its original quiet, studious atmosphere.

When one of the less studious pupils initiates this behavior, it seems as if it is almost planned and deliberate. However, close observation proves that most often it is started by one of the pupils considered most studious and well behaved. The minute one person begins this meandering to some other part of the room, one at a time others start rising and moving to other parts. Often they stop on the way to visit a friend.

I've tried to determine if the pupils sense a sort of termination of the lesson, or if they sense a time to relax. Although the behavior appears to be unpremeditated, still it seems as if a signal is flashed to each person in the group which tells him it is time to stop work and to move around the room. It is a problem—mainly because it shortens the study and teaching time. Getting them back into place and starting them to work again involves many minutes.

#### Training Problem

1. What conditions exist in the situation described in the incident that are amenable to change by the teacher? What is the apparent problem?
2. Analyze the group properties and characteristics as a basis for proposing changes.

#### Action Steps

Individual study and analysis of the incident, group discussion, and revisions of individual work.

1. The instructor will read the incident to the class. A previously arranged reality simulation may be used to dramatize and clarify the problem behavior that is the concern of the teacher. If the incident is played, care should be taken to communicate the feeling tone and to neither exaggerate nor underplay the situation.

2. After the introduction of the incident, each person is advised to carefully study and note significant clues in the incident.

3. The assignment is for each person to complete the "Diagnosis of Group Behavior"; to participate in a group discussion in which everyone contributes his diagnosis and listens to those of the other members; and reflects upon the pooling of ideas and, if he sees that changes are needed, revises his original diagnosis.

4. Class members, working independently, study the incident and complete their diagnosis on the following form.

#### FRAME OF REFERENCE FOR DIAGNOSIS OF GROUP BEHAVIOR

*Directions:* In the left-hand column record your diagnosis for each of the headings. Refer to the incident whenever necessary.

In the right-hand column indicate with a check mark your estimate of the significance of the conditions which you have written in. The checks in the second column should be placed opposite the points written in. Several points are possible under each heading.

5. Each person shares his diagnosis with a small group or with the whole class. If time does not permit the reporting of each point, a selection of points may be made.

6. The probable outcomes of their plans may be described by individuals.

#### Concluding Activities

1. Each individual reviews his diagnosis in the light of the group sharing and discussion. The use of a pen or pencil of a different color will indicate to the person the extent of the changes and additions he has made.

2. The instructor will summarize the steps in the general plan for diagnosis. He may indicate the learnings in relation to diagnostic skills, the points emphasized in this training exercise, and remind the class of important elements

One: What are conditions in the class in the incident with regard to the following: (Subpoints are to be considered suggestive only. Add others and notations.)	Significance			
	Considerable	Some	None	Uncertain
<p>A. Unity and Cooperation  Sources of agreement  Diversity/similarity</p> <p>B. Composition of the Group  Abilities  Attitudes  Homogeneity-heterogeneity  Age</p> <p>C. Tasks and Work  Type of tasks  Quality of performance  Rewards  Stress conditions</p> <p>D. Communication  Pattern  Open/closed</p> <p>E. Norms  State of development  Clarity</p> <p>F. Morale  Level  Stability</p> <p>G. Other</p>				
<p>Two: From the foregoing diagnosis, determine the changes that are needed. Record them briefly. Place a check mark in front of those that you feel should have immediate attention.</p> <p>Three: After the changes have been put into effect, the teacher must stabilize and maintain the changed situation. Indicate your plan for this step, with attention to what the teacher should do and how it is to be done.</p>				



which were not included or emphasized because of the design of this exercise. The class should continue to be aware of the importance of applying basic knowledge in group properties and characteristics.

## REFERENCES

- ALLEN, M. K., and R. M. LIEBERT. "Effects of Live and Symbolic Deviant Modeling Cues on Adoption of a Previously Learned Standard." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1969), 11:253-260.
- ALLEN, S. A., P. S. SPEAR, and J. JOHNSON. "Experimenter Role Effects in Children's Task Performance and Perception." *Child Development* (1969), 40:1-9.
- AMIDON, E., and A. BLUMBERG. "Student Perceptions of Group Work in Teacher Education Classes." *Journal of Educational Research* (1963), 56:352-57.
- ANDERSON, L. R., and W. MCGUIRE. "Prior Reassurance of Group Consensus as a Factor in Producing Resistance to Persuasion." *Sociometry* (1965), 28:44-56.
- ANDERSON, S. A. "Where Students Maintain Much of Their Own Discipline." *Nation's Schools* (1961), 67:71-4.
- ARONSON, E., and J. M. CARLSMITH. "Performance Expectancy as a Determinant of Actual Performance." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1962), 65:178-82.
- BACK, K. W., and E. DAVIS. "Some Personal and Situational Factors Relevant to the Consistency and Prediction of Conforming Behavior." *Sociometry* (1965), 28:227-40.
- BALES, R. R. *Interaction Process Analysis*. Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1950.
- BANY, M. A. "A Discussion Technique for Settling Conflicts." *Elementary English* (1958), 35:223-26.
- BANY, M. A., and L. V. JOHNSON. *Classroom Group Behavior: Group Dynamics in Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1964.
- BASS, B. M. *Leadership, Psychology, and Organizational Behavior*. New York: Harper, 1960.

- BATES, M. "Fine Art of Groupsmanship or Surviving in Group Interaction." *Personnel and Guidance Journal* (1968), 47:381-84.
- BEM, D. J., M. A. WALLACH, and N. KOGAN. "Group Decision-Making Under Risk of Aversive Consequences." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1965), 1:453-60.
- BENNIS, W. G. *Changing Organizations: Essays on the Development and Evolution of Human Organization*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1966.
- BENNIS, W., K. D. BENNE, and R. CHIN (eds.). *The Planning of Change*. New York: Holt, 1961; 2d ed., 1969.
- BERG, I. A., and B. M. BASS (eds.). *Conformity and Deviation*. New York: Harper, 1961.
- BERKOWITZ, L. (ed.). *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. New York: Academic, 1965.
- BERKOWITZ, L. *Aggression: A Social Psychological Analysis*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962.
- BERKOWITZ, L., and R. GORANSON. "Motivational and Judgmental Determinants of Social Perception." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1964), 69:296-302.
- BOSTROM, N., J. W. VLANDIS, and E. ROSENBAUM. "Grades as Reinforcing Contingencies and Attitude Change." *Journal of Educational Psychology* (1961), 52:112-15.
- BOUCHARD, T., JR. "Personality, Problem-Solving Procedure, and Performance in Small Groups." *Journal of Applied Psychology Monographs* (1969), 53:1-27.
- BRADFORD, D. L., F. FOWLER, JR., M. A. HOFELLER, J. RABOW, and Y. SHIBUYA. "The Role of Social Norms and Leadership in Risk-Taking." *Sociometry* (1966), 29:16-27.
- BRADFORD, L. P. "Developing Potentialities through Class Groups." *Teachers College Record* (1960), 61:443-50.
- BRILLIANT, J. K., and L. M. JOCHEM. "Effects of Different Patterns on Outcomes of Problem-Solving Discussion." *Journal of Applied Psychology* (1964), 48:175-79.
- BROOK, W. L. "Anatomy of the Group." *Peabody Journal of Education* (1968), 45:301-02.
- BRYAN, J. F., and E. A. LOCKE. "Goal Setting as a Means of Increasing Motivation." *Journal of Applied Psychology* (1967), 51:274-77.
- BUCHANAN, P. C. "How Can We Gain Their Commitment?" *Personnel* (1965), 42:21-6.
- BURNSTEIN, E., and R. B. ZAJONC. "Individual Task Performance in a Changing Social Structure." *Sociometry* (1965), 28:16-29.
- CARTWRIGHT, D., and A. ZANDER. *Group Dynamics, Research and Theory*. New York: Harper, 3d ed., 1968.

- CHASE, I. "The Control of Ability to Learn in the Comparison of Extreme Groups." *Journal of Educational Research* (1964), 57:495-97.
- CHESIN, G. A., and H. M. SELMAN. "Group Dynamics and In-Service Education." *Peabody Journal of Education* (1967), 44:350-52.
- COHEN, A. "Social Norms, Arbitrariness of Frustration, and Status of the Agent of Frustration in Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1955), 51:222-26.
- COHEN, D., J. W. WHITMYRE, and W. H. FUNK. "Effect of Group Cohesiveness and Training upon Creative Thinking." *Journal of Applied Psychology* (1960), 44:319-22.
- COLLINS, B. E., and H. A. GUETZKOW. *A Social Psychology of Group Processes for Decision-Making*. New York: Wiley, 1964.
- CRYSTAL, J. "Role-Playing in a Troubled Class." *Elementary School Journal* (1969), 69:169-79.
- DARLEY, J. "Fear and Social Comparison as Determinants of Conformity Behavior." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1966), 4:73-8.
- DAVIS, J. H., and F. RESTLE. "The Analysis of Problems and Prediction of Group Problem Solving." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1963), 66:103-16.
- DEUTSCH, M., and R. M. KRAUSS. *Theories in Social Psychology*. New York: Basic, 1965.
- DRLEBEN, R. "The Contribution of Schooling to the Learning of Norms." *Harvard Educational Review* (1967), 37:211-37. Reply by: Crittenden, B. S., in *Harvard Educational Review* (1967), 37:647-50.
- DUSTIN, D. "Member Reactions to Team Performance." *Journal of Social Psychology* (1966), 69:237-43.
- EMERSON, R. "Power-Dependence Relations: Two Experiments." *Sociometry* (1961), 27:282-98.
- ENDLER, N. S. "Conformity as a Function of Different Reinforcement Schedules." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1966), 4:176-80.
- EVANS, K. M. "Group Methods." *Educational Research* (1967), 9:44-50.
- FOREMAN, M. E., W. A. POPPEN, and J. M. FROST. "Case Groups: An In-Service Technique." *Personnel and Guidance Journal* (1967), 46:388-92.
- GELF, R. G., and E. C. O'NEAL. "Activation of Cue-Elicited Aggression by General Arousal." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1969), 11:289-92.
- GEORGOPOLOS, B. S. "Normative Structure Variables and Organizational Behavior." *Human Relations* (1965), 18:155-70.
- GERGEN, K. J. "The Effects of Interaction Goals and Personalistic Feedback on the Presentation of Self." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1965), 1:113-21.

- GERGEN, K. J., and B. WISHNOV. "Others' Self-Evaluations and Interaction Anticipation as Determinants of Self-Presentation." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1965), 2:348-58.
- GERGEN, K. J., and M. G. TAYLOR. "Social Expectancy and Self-Presentation in a Status Hierarchy." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* (1969), 5:79-92.
- GOLDMAN, M., B. J. HABERLAIN, and G. J. FEDER. "Conformity and Resistance to Group Pressure." *Sociometry* (1965), 28:220-26.
- GOODCHILDS, J., and E. SMITH. "The Wit and His Group." *Human Relations* (1964), 17:23-32.
- GRIFFITHS, D. E. (ed.). *Behavioral Science and Educational Administration*. The 63d Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1964.
- GUETZKOW, H., and J. GYR. "An Analysis of Conflict in Decision-making Groups." *Human Relations* (1954), 7:367-82.
- HAGSTROM, W. O., and S. C. HANAN. "Two Dimensions of Cohesiveness in Small Groups." *Sociometry* (1965), 28:30-44.
- HALL, E. J., J. S. MOUTON, and R. R. BLAKE. "Group Problem Solving Effectiveness under Conditions of Pooling vs. Interaction." *Journal of Social Psychology* (1963), 59:147-57.
- HARE, A. P. *Handbook of Small Group Research*. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1962.
- HARE, A. P., and R. F. BALES. "Seating Position and Small Group Interaction." *Sociometry* (1963), 26:480-86.
- HARTMANN, D. P. "Influence of Symbolically Modeled Instrumental Aggression and Pain Cues on Aggressive Behavior." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1969), 11:280-88.
- HELLER, R. W. "Informal Organization and Perceptions of the Organizational Climate of Schools." *Journal of Educational Research* (1968), 61:405-11.
- HELLER, R. W., and D. J. WILLOWER. "Informal Structure in Elementary Schools." *Elementary School Journal* (1968), 69:91-9.
- HENRY, N. B. (ed.). *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups: Sociopsychological Aspects of Teaching and Learning*. The 59th Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1960.
- HISLIN, R., and D. DUNSBY. "Three Dimensions of Member Satisfaction in Small Groups." *Human Relations* (1964), 17:99-112.
- HICKS, J. M. "The Influence of Group Flattery upon Self Evaluation." *Journal of Social Psychology* (1962), 58:117-51.
- HIGGINS, G., and H. BRIDGER. "The Psychodynamics of an Intergroup Experience." *Human Relations* (1961), 17:391-119.

- HOFFMAN, L. R. "Group Problem Solving," in L. BERKOWITZ, (ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 2. New York: Academic, 1965.
- HOFFMAN, L. R., and N. R. F. MAIER. "Valence in the Adoption of Solutions by Problem-Solving Groups: Concept, Method, and Results." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1964), 69:264-71.
- HOFFMAN, L. R., R. L. BURKE, and N. R. F. MAIER. "Participation, Influence, and Satisfaction Among Members of Problem-Solving Groups." *Psychological Reports* (1965), 16:661-67.
- HOWELLS, L. T., and S. W. BECKER. "Seating Arrangement and Leadership Emergence." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1962), 64:148-50.
- HUTCHINSON, J. G. *Organizations: Theory and Classical Concepts*. New York: Holt, 1967.
- HUTTE, H. "Decision-taking in a Management Game." *Human Relations* (1965), 18:5-20.
- INSKO, C. *Theories of Attitude Change*. New York: Appleton, 1967.
- ISCOE, I., and M. S. WILLIAMS. "Experimental Variables Affecting the Conformity Behavior of Children." *Journal of Personality* (1963), 31: 234-46.
- ISCOE, I., M. WILLIAMS, and J. HARVEY. "Modification of Children's Judgments by a Simulated Group Technique: A Normative Developmental Study." *Child Development* (1963), 34:963-78.
- JECKER, J., N. MACCOBY, H. S. BREITROSE, and E. D. ROSE. "Teacher Accuracy in Assessing Cognitive Visual Feedback from Students." *Journal of Applied Psychology* (1964), 48:393-97.
- JOHANSEN, J. H. "Relationships between Teachers' Perceptions of Influence in Local Curriculum Decision-Making and Curriculum Implementation." *Journal of Educational Research* (1967), 61:81-3.
- JONES, E., K. GERGEN, P. GUMPERT, and J. THIBAUT. "Some Conditions Affecting the Use of Ingratiation to Influence Performance Evaluation." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1965), 1:613-25.
- JONES, R. G., and E. E. JONES. "Optimum Conformity as an Ingratiation Tactic." *Journal of Personality* (1964), 32:436-58.
- JULIAN, J. W., E. P. HOLLANDER, and C. R. REGULA. "Endorsement of the Group Spokesman as a Function of His Source of Authority, Competence, and Success." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1969), 11:12-9.
- JULIAN, J. W., and F. A. PERRY. "Cooperation Contrasted with Intragroup and Intergroup Competition." *Sociometry* (1967), 30:79-90.
- KATZ, D., and R. L. KAHN. *The Social Psychology of Organizations*. New York: Wiley, 1966.

- KATZ, E., W. LIBBY, JR., and F. L. STRODBECK. "Status Mobility and Reactions to Deviance and Subsequent Conformity." *Sociometry* (1964), 27:245-60.
- KELMAN, H. C., and A. H. EAGLY. "Attitude Toward the Communicator, Perception of Communication Content, and Attitude Change." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1965), 1:63-78.
- KIESLER, C. A. "Attraction to the Group and Conformity to Group Norms." *Journal of Personality* (1963), 31:559-69.
- KIESLER, C. A., and L. H. CORBIN. "Commitment, Attraction, and Conformity." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1965), 2:890-95.
- KNIGHT, O. B. "Decrease in Social Distance as a Consequence of Interaction: A Pilot Study." *California Journal of Educational Research* (1968), 19:121-26.
- KOOI, B. Y., and R. E. SCHUTZ. "A Factor Analysis of Classroom-Disturbance Inter-Correlations." *American Educational Research Journal* (1965), 2:37-40.
- KOUNIN, J. S., and S. OBRADOVIC. "Managing Emotionally Disturbed Children in Regular Classrooms: A Replication and Extension." *Journal of Special Education* (1968), 2:129-35.
- LERMAN, P. "Gangs, Networks, and Sub-Cultural Delinquency." *American Journal of Sociology* (1967), 73:63-72.
- LIKERT, R. *The Human Organization: Its Management and Value*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967.
- LINDGREN, H. C. *Contemporary Research in Social Psychology*. New York: Wiley, 1969.
- LOTT, A. J., and B. E. LOTT. "Group Cohesiveness as Interpersonal Attraction: A Review of Relationships with Antecedent and Consequent Variables." *Psychological Bulletin* (1965), 64:259-309.
- LUCHINS, A. S., and E. H. LUCHINS. "Einstellung Effect and Group Problem Solving." *Journal of Social Psychology* (1969), 77:79-89.
- LYNTON, R. P., and U. PARECK. *Training for Development*. Homewood, Ill.: Irwin, 1967.
- MCGRATH, J. E., and I. ALTMAN. *Small Group Research*. New York: Holt, 1966.
- MADSEN, C. H., and A. W. STEWART. "Rules, Praise, and Ignoring Elements of Elementary Classroom Control." *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis* (1968), 1:139-50.
- MAIER, N. R. F. *Problem-solving Discussions and Conferences: Leadership Methods and Skills*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963.
- MARAK, G. E., JR. "The Evolution of Leadership Structure." *Sociometry* (1964), 27:174-82.
- MEDOW, H., and A. ZANDER. "Aspirations for the Group Chosen by Cen-

- tral and Peripheral Members." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1965), 1:224-28.
- MEDOW, H., and A. ZANDER. "Individual and Group Levels of Aspiration." *Human Relations* (1963), 16:89-105.
- MEUNIER, C., and B. G. RULE. "Anxiety, Confidence, and Conformity." *Journal of Personality* (1967), 35:498-504.
- MILLS, M. B. (ed.) *Innovation in Education*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1964.
- MILGRAM, S. "Group Pressure and Action Against a Person." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1964), 69:137-43.
- MILGRAM, S. "Liberating Effects of Group Pressure." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1965), 1:127-34.
- MILLER, N., A. N. DOOB, D. C. BUTLER, and D. MARLOWE. "The Tendency to Agree. Situational Determinants and Social Desirability." *Journal of Experimental Research in Personality* (1965), 2:78-83.
- MORRIS, C. G. "Task Effects on Group Interaction." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1966), 4:545-54.
- MOSSMAN, B. M., and R. C. ZILLER. "Self Esteem and Consistency of Social Behavior." *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* (1968), 73:363-67.
- MOZDZIERZ, G. J., M. McCONVILLE, and H. H. KRAUSS. "Classroom Status and Perceived Performance in Sixth Graders." *Journal of Social Psychology* (1968), 75:185-90.
- OAKES, W. F., A. E. DROGE, and B. AUGUST. "Reinforcement Effects on Participation in Group Discussion." *Psychological Reports* (1960), 7:503-14.
- OSTROM, T. M. "The Relationship between the Affective, Behavioral and Cognitive Components of Attitude." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* (1969), 5:12-30.
- PEPITONE, A. D. *Attraction and Hostility*. New York: Atherton, 1964.
- PICORS, P., C. A. MYERS, and F. T. MALM, (eds.). *Management of Human Resources: Readings in Personal Administration*. New York: McGraw Hill, 1961.
- PICORS, P., and F. PICORS. *Case Method in Human Relations*. New York: McGraw Hill, 1961.
- POPPIN, W. A. "Communication Problems in the Schools: Myths and Realities." *Peabody Journal of Education* (1968), 45:220-24.
- REITER, H. H. "The Effect of Orientation Through Small-Group Discussion on Modification of Certain Attitudes." *Journal of Educational Research* (1961), 58:65-8.
- ROGERS, E. M. "Communication of Innovations in a Complex Institution." *Educational Record* (1968), 19:67-77.
- ROTTER, G. S. "An Experimental Evaluation of Group Attractiveness as a Determinant of Conformity." *Human Relations* (1967), 20:273-9.



- SCHEIN, E. H., and W. G. BENNIS. *Personal and Organizational Change through Group Methods*. New York: Wiley, 1965.
- SCHELLENBERG, J. A. "Dependence and Cooperation." *Sociometry* (1965), 28:158-72.
- SCHMUCK, R. A. "Helping Teachers Improve Classroom Group Processes." *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* (1968), 4:401-35.
- SCHMUCK, R. A. "Some Relationships of Peer Liking Patterns in the Classroom to Pupil Attitudes and Achievement." *School Review* (1963), 71:337-59.
- SCHOPLER, J. "Social Power," in L. Berkowitz, (ed.). *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. New York: Academic, 1965.
- SHAW, M. E. "Communication Networks," in L. Berkowitz, (ed.). *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*. New York: Academic, 1965.
- SHAW, M. E., and J. M. BLUM. "Effects of Leadership Style upon Group Performance as a Function of Task Structure." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1966), 3:238-42.
- SHAW, M. E., and J. M. BLUM. "Group Performance as a Function of Task Difficulty and the Group's Awareness of Member Satisfaction." *Journal of Applied Psychology* (1965), 49:151-54.
- SHERIF, M., (ed.). *Intergroup Relations and Leadership*. New York: Wiley, 1962.
- SMITH, S. A. "Conformity in Cooperative and Competitive Groups." *Journal of Social Psychology* (1965), 65:337-50.
- SNOEK, J. D. "Some Effects of Rejection Upon Attraction to a Group." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1962), 64:175-82.
- THEODOSON, G. A. "The Function of Hostility in Small Groups." *Journal of Social Psychology* (1962), 56:57-66.
- THOMAS, D. R., W. C. BECKER, and M. ARMSTRONG. "Production and Elimination of Disruptive Classroom Behavior by Systematically Varying Teacher's Behavior." *Journal of Applied Behavioral Analysis* (1968), 1:35-46.
- THOMAS, E. J., and C. FINK. "Effects of Group Size." *Psychological Bulletin* (1963), 60:371-84.
- UTTERBACK, W. E. *Group Thinking and Conference Leadership*. (rev. ed.) New York: Holt, 1964.
- VAUGHN, G. M., and G. L. MANGAN. "Conformity to Group Pressure in Relation to the Value of the Task Material." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1963), 66:179-83.
- WAGNER, R. H., and C. C. ARNOLD. *Handbook of Group Discussion*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1965.
- WAHLBERG, H. J., and G. J. ANDERSON. "Classroom Climate and Individual Learning." *Journal of Educational Psychology* (1968), 59:414-19.
- WAHLER, R. G. "Child-child Interactions in Free Field Settings: Some

- Experimental Analyses." *Journal of Experimental Psychology* (1967), 5:278-93.
- WALLACH, M. A., and N. KOGAN. "The Roles of Information, Discussion and Consensus in Group Risk Taking." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* (1965), 1:1-19.
- WALLACH, M. A., N. KOGAN, and D. BEM. "Diffusion of Responsibility and Level of Risk Taking in Groups." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1964), 68:263-74.
- WALLEN, C. J. "Teacher, Individual and Group Issued Incentives and Pupil Performance: A Nineteen Classroom Experiment in Motivation." *Journal of Educational Research* (1964), 57:413-16.
- WARD, C. D. "Seating Arrangement and Leadership Emergence in Small Discussion Groups." *Journal of Social Psychology* (1968), 74:83-90.
- WEHLING, L. J., and W. W. CHARTERS, JR. "Dimensions of Teacher Beliefs About the Teaching Process." *American Educational Research Journal* (1969), 6:7-30.
- WHEELER, L., and A. R. CAGGIULA. "The Contagion of Aggression." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* (1966), 2:1-10.
- WITHALL, J., and W. W. LEWIS. "Social Interaction in the Classroom," in N. L. Gage, (ed.), *Handbook of Research in Teaching*. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963.
- WOLFSON, B. J., and S. NASH. "Perceptions of Decision-making in Elementary-school Classrooms." *Elementary School Journal* (1968), 69: 89-93.
- WYER, R. S., JR. "Behavioral Correlates of Academic Achievement; Pursuit of Individual versus Group Goals in a Decision-Making Task." *Journal of Educational Psychology* (1968), 59:74-81.
- WYER, R. S., JR. "Effects of Incentive to Perform Well, Group Attraction, and Group Acceptance on Conformity in a Judgmental Task." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1966), 4:21-6.
- WYER, R. S., JR., and S. SCHWARTZ. "Some Contingencies in the Effects of the Source of a Communication on the Evaluation of the Communication." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1969), 11:1-9.
- YATES, A. J. *Frustration and Conflict*. New York: Wiley, 1962.
- ZANDER, A., and H. MEDOW. "Individual and Group Levels of Aspiration." *Human Relations* (1963), 16:89-105.
- ZANDER, A., and H. MEDOW. "Strength of the Group and Desire for Attainable Group Aspirations." *Journal of Personality* (1965), 33:122-39.
- ZANDER, A., H. MEDOW, and R. EFRON. "Observer's Expectations as Determinants of Group Aspirations." *Human Relations* (1965), 18:273-85.
- ZANDER, A., and T. CURTIS. "Some Support and Rejection of Organizational Standards" *Journal of Educational Psychology* (1965), 56:87-95.

- ZAJONC, R. B. "Social Facilitation." *Science* (1965), 149:269-74.
- ZAJONC, R. B., and D. M. WOLFE. "Cognitive Consequences of a Person's Position in a Formal Organization." *Human Relations* (1966), 19: 139-50.
- ZAJONC, R. B., and P. BRICKMAN. "Expectancy and Feedback as Independent Factors in Task Performance." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* (1969), 11:148-56.
- ZAJONC, R. B., and S. M. SALES. "Social Facilitation of Dominant and Subordinate Responses." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* (1966), 2:160-8.
- ZILLER, R. C., R. D. BEHRINGER, and J. D. GOODCHILDS. "Group Creativity Under Conditions of Success or Failure and Variations in Group Stability." *Journal of Applied Psychology* (1962), 46:43-9.
- ZIMBARDO, P. "Involvement and Communication Discrepancy as Determinants of Opinion Change." *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (1960), 60:86-94.
- ZIMET, C., and C. SCHNEIDER. "Effect of Group Size on Interaction in Small Groups." *Journal of Social Psychology* (1969), 77:177-88.

- unity, and, 146-47
- Cooperative, action, 323-25
  - behavior, 216
  - practice, 105
  - relationships, 55, 150-51
- Curriculum organization, 61, 122-23
- Decision-making, effects, 218-19
  - leadership of, 207-208
  - process of, 189-92
  - standards and, 189-193
- Democratic leadership, 24-25
- Dependent groups, 54-56
- Dependent individuals, 87-89
- Deviant behavior, 20-21
- Deviation, from norms, 51-52
- Diagnosis, 288-428
  - disagreements, of, 413
  - framework for, 428-29
  - group health, of, 410-13
  - problems, of, 107
  - processes, of, 427-29
  - steps of, 428
- Disadvantaged children, 402, 406-409
  - needs of, 407-408
- Disagreements, and conflict, 367-68, 372-73
  - communication, and, 367
  - diagnosis of, 413-16
  - individuals in, 392-95
  - methods of handling, 370-81
- Discipline, 7
  - approaches to, 24-31
  - control methods, 412-43
  - problems, 223
- Discussion, 135-36, 258, 287-88, 293, 372
  - change, and, 300-301
  - facilitation of, 282-94
  - group, 202-204, 372
  - guidance of, 202-204, 300
  - problem types, 162-63
  - skills of, 240-41
  - skill training, and, 135-36
- Dissatisfaction, causes, 153
  - effects of, 405-406
  - symptoms of, 411-13
- Divertive practices, 105
- Dominant-submissive patterns, 345-46
- Dominative practices, 35, 105
- Dynamic stability, 65
- Effective management, 407
- Ego motives, 290, 334
- Emotion, in groups, 327, 342-43
- Environmental change, 56-59, 416-17
- Environment of group, climate, 24-26, 223, 409-10
- Equilibrium, group, 345
- Esprit de corps, 321-22
- Etiology, 428
- Evaluation, favorable, 24, 304-305
  - reporting of, 123
- Expectations, 149-50
  - children's, 80-81, 185-86
  - norms, and, 117-18
- Facilitation, 43-64
  - meaning of, 68-69
  - nature of, 70-72
- Facilitative, practices, 68-72, 304
  - tasks, 64
- Fear, of punishment, 402-403
- Feedback, 133
- Fights, 414-16
- Forces, group, 98-103
- Formulation of problems, 231-35
- Friendship clusters, 145
  - patterns, 23-24
  - ties, 143
- Fringe members, 200
- Frustration, 363
  - collective reactions to, 195-96
  - group, 332-33
  - morale, and, 352-53
  - pressure, and, 194-96
  - reaction to, 89-91
  - severe controls, and, 195-96
  - symptoms of, 411
  - teachers', 195
  - unorganized groups, in, 332-33
- Functional operativeness, 73
- Functional order, of school, 49-50
- Goals, group, 102-103, 262-67
  - attainment, 268-69, 273-74
  - change of, 309-11
  - educational, 23-26
  - guidance of, 273-75

- Blaming behavior, 424-25
- Boundary conditions, 207-208
- Change, approaches to, 261-62
  - attempts to, 284-86
  - basic principles of, 278-79
  - developing need for, 287-88
  - environmental, 58-59
  - group needs and, 109-11
  - individuals, and, 67
  - initiating action, 289-94
  - need for, 287-88
  - phases of, 279-82
  - popular children and, 113-14
  - practice trials in, 295-98
  - preparation for, 416-17
  - propositions related to, 282-83
  - resistance to, 108-109
  - stabilization of, 304-305
  - techniques of, 109-11, 113, 283-84
  - theories of, 261-62
- Characteristics of groups, 138
  - properties of, 97-98, 144
- Citizen arrest, 33
- Class meeting, example of, 284-86
- Classification, of children, 19
  - the teaching transaction, 10-11
- Classroom group, 96-98
  - goals, 265-67
  - management, 9-10
- Classroom organization, 97-98
  - climate of, 24-26
  - diagnosis, 410-13
  - guidelines for functioning, 409-10
  - hostility in, 410-11
  - symptoms of dependency, 412
- Classroom size, 145
- Climate, classroom, 24-26, 223, 409-10
- Cliques, 155-56
- Clown, 90
- Coercion, 37
- Cohesiveness, 138
  - competition and, 167-69
  - decrease in, 153-54
  - determiners of, 143
  - development of, 147-53
  - lack of, 151-52, 171
  - properties of, 143-44, 154-55
  - satisfaction, and, 139-40
  - structure, and, 145
  - unity, and, 138, 153-55
- Collective behavior, 7, 11, 19, 37, 52, 123-24, 195
- Communication, 111-12, 144-45, 367
  - change, and, 289-90
  - cohesiveness, and, 159
  - effects of, 111-13
  - facilitation of, 292-94
  - interaction, and, 99-102
  - persuasive, 367
  - teachers', 100-102
- Competition, 167-69, 356
  - emphasis on, 326-27
  - research on, 168-69
- Conceptual framework, need for, 31-34
  - skills, 8, 16, 401-402
  - tools, 6
- Conduct, rules of, 211-12
  - standards of, 177-79
  - work, 193-97
- Conflict, affective, 381-83, 368
  - causation, 367
  - communication in, 370
  - constructive use of, 162-63, 369-70
  - dynamics of, 363-69
  - frequency of, 362
  - frustration, and, 363
  - goal motivation, and, 363
  - inhibition of, 364-65
  - interference, 363-64
  - organized groups, in, 365
  - resolution of, 373-77
  - stages of, 387-89
  - values in, 370
- Conformity, 51-52
  - to norms, 214-15
- Control practices, 26-27
  - changes in approach, 25-26
  - teachers', 103-108
  - threatening, 196
  - underlying assumptions, 224-25
- Control systems, school, 188-89
- Conventional practices, 20-24
- Conventional theory, 37
- Cooperation, 141-42
  - competition, and, 167-69
  - development of, 197-98
  - lack of, 171
  - teacher-pupil, 142
  - through problem solving, 248-49

- unity, and, 146-47
- Cooperative, action, 323-25
  - behavior, 216
  - practice, 105
  - relationships, 55, 150-51
- Curriculum organization, 61, 122-23
- Decision-making, effects, 218-19
  - leadership of, 207-208
  - process of, 189-92
  - standards and, 189-193
- Democratic leadership, 24-25
- Dependent groups, 54-56
- Dependent individuals, 87-89
- Deviant behavior, 20-21
- Deviation, from norms, 51-52
- Diagnosis, 288-428
  - disagreements, of, 413
  - framework for, 428-29
  - group health, of, 410-13
  - problems, of, 107
  - processes, of, 427-29
  - steps of, 428
- Disadvantaged children, 402, 406-409
  - needs of, 407-408
- Disagreements, and conflict, 367-68, 372-73
  - communication, and, 367
  - diagnosis of, 413-16
  - individuals in, 392-95
  - methods of handling, 370-81
- Discipline, 7
  - approaches to, 24-31
  - control methods, 412-43
  - problems, 223
- Discussion, 135-36, 258, 287-88, 293, 372
  - change, and, 300-301
  - facilitation of, 282-94
  - group, 202-204, 372
  - guidance of, 202-204, 300
  - problem types, 162-63
  - skills of, 240-41
  - skill training, and, 135-36
- Dissatisfaction, causes, 153
  - effects of, 405-406
  - symptoms of, 411-13
- Divertive practices, 105
- Dominant-submissive patterns, 345-46
- Dominative practices, 35, 105
- Dynamic stability, 65
- Effective management, 407
- Ego motives, 290, 334
- Emotion, in groups, 327, 342-43
- Environmental change, 56-59, 416-17
- Environment of group, climate, 24-26, 223, 409-10
- Equilibrium, group, 345
- Esprit de corps, 321-22
- Etiology, 428
- Evaluation, favorable, 24, 304-305
  - reporting of, 123
- Expectations, 149-50
  - children's, 80-81, 185-86
  - norms, and, 117-18
- Facilitation, 43-64
  - meaning of, 68-69
  - nature of, 70-72
- Facilitative, practices, 68-72, 304
  - tasks, 64
- Fear, of punishment, 402-403
- Feedback, 133
- Fights, 414-16
- Forces, group, 98-103
- Formulation of problems, 231-35
- Friendship clusters, 145
  - patterns, 23-24
  - ties, 143
- Fringe members, 200
- Frustration, 363
  - collective reactions to, 195-96
  - group, 332-33
  - morale, and, 352-53
  - pressure, and, 194-96
  - reaction to, 89-91
  - severe controls, and, 195-96
  - symptoms of, 411
  - teachers', 195
  - unorganized groups, in, 332-33
- Functional operativeness, 73
- Functional order, of school, 49-50
- Goals, group, 102-103, 262-67
  - attainment, 268-69, 273-74
  - change of, 309-11
  - educational, 25-26
  - guidance of, 273-75

- Goals (*cont.*)  
 norms, and, 309-10  
 operation of, 262-67, 271-73  
 prescribed, 265-66  
 teachers', 267-68
- Goal-seeking behavior, 309-11
- Group, aggression, and, 56-59, 365-66  
 apathetic, 48, 88-89  
 atmosphere, 108, 138  
 balance, 73  
 classroom, nature of, 96-98  
 climate, 108  
 conformity, 51  
 decision practices, 189-93  
 discussion, 372-76, 393-96  
 dissension, 412  
 distracted, 54-56  
 effects on individuals, 87-91  
 forces, operating on, 98-99  
 goals, 102-103, 262-67  
 leadership, 25-26, 107, 173-74  
 noncohesive, 146  
 planning, in, 270-71  
 power, 186  
 problems and effects, 257-58  
 properties, 97-98, 144  
 rejection in, 51-52  
 resistance of, 108-109  
 spirit and pride, development of, 200-201
- Group-centered education, 26
- Group decision, 218-19  
 guidelines for conduct, 197-98  
 specifications of, 207-208
- Grouping practices, 18, 60-61, 120-22  
 for instruction, 409
- Guiding discussion, 202-204  
 problem solving, and, 231-35
- Handicapped children, 83-87
- Health of group, diagnosis of, 410-13
- High achievers, 17-19
- Homogeneous grouping, 121
- Hostile behavior, 56-58
- Hostile individuals, 89-91
- Hostility, 56-57, 362-63  
 diagnosis of, 413-16  
 displacement of, 365  
 overt acts of, 56-59  
 reaction of, 277-78  
 reduction of, 366
- Human relations, concern for, 27
- Identification, of problems, 45
- Imitative behavior, 106-107
- Incentives, 274-75
- Incident-simulation training, 129-36  
 discussions, and, 135-36  
 feedback and, 133  
 goals of, 129-33  
 perception, and, 132-33  
 purpose, 129  
 sessions, 318  
 skill development, 315-20  
 training plan, 316-18
- Individualized approaches, to education, 37
- Individualized instruction, 407-408
- Individuals, with problems, 81-87
- Informal groups, in classrooms, 155
- Informal leadership, 19
- Inner city schools, 418-19
- Inputs, 62
- Instructional organization, 120-21  
 practice, and morale, 326  
 tasks, completion of, 62
- Instructional tasks, 11
- Integration of groups, 11, 138, 323  
 stress, and, 311
- Integrity, group, 73
- Interaction, 99-100  
 conflict, and, 367-68  
 improvement of, 249
- Interpersonal attraction, 142-43, 162
- Interpersonal hostilities, 257
- Interpersonal influence, 249
- Interpersonal problems, 423-24
- Interpersonal relations, 257-58, 423-25
- Interruptions, of class work, 4
- Intra group relations, 355-56
- Isolates, 85-86
- Job of management, 44-45
- Labels, and classifications, 17-19
- Laboratory training, 34
- Leaders, 33, 348-49  
 appointed, 32-33, 324-25  
 child, in conflict situations, 397-98  
 selection of, 326-27

- Leadership, 24-25, 229-30
  - child role in, 318-19
  - democratic, 24-26
  - practices, 107
  - restrictive, 173-74
  - training children for, 349
- Low achievers, 17-19
- Loyalty, 138-39
- Maintenance, activity, 5, 10, 43
  - group, 59-60
  - nature of, 72-74
  - satisfaction, and, 151-53
  - tasks, 64-66
  - unity, and, 151-53
- Management, 9-11, 24
  - classification of, 63-65
  - conceptions of, 34-35
  - discipline, and, 66-68
  - force, and, 358-59
  - functions, 63-66
  - meaning of, 9-11, 36-38
  - practices, 103-108
  - propositions central to, 407
  - scope of, 44-45
  - task of, 36-38
- Marginal members, 81
- Methods courses, 29
- Misbehavior, approval of, 52-58
  - individual, 82-87
- Modular scheduling, 121
- Monitors, election of, 219-20
- Morale, 54, 62-63, 139
  - anxiety, effects of, 325-30
  - conditions affecting, 322-25
  - cooperation, and, 323
  - definition of, 321-22
  - fluctuations in, 321
  - goals and, 324, 356-57
  - leadership style, effects, 323
  - management and, 62-63
  - organizational effects, 352-53, 355-56
  - restoration of, 333-37
  - time pressures, and, 336-37, 342
- Motivation, 322-23
- Motives, shared, 146
- Need achievement, development of, 225-27
- Needs, 109-111
  - affiliation, 23-24, 141
  - disadvantaged children, of, 406-409
  - for interpersonal relationships, 257-58, 423-25
  - group, 262
  - satisfaction and, 309-11
  - satisfaction of, 223-25
  - social-emotional, 257
- Need to change, 287-88
- Newcomers, 417, 420-21
- Nonacceptance, of individuals, 51-52
- Nonadaptive behavior, 107
- Nontask goals, 103
- Norms, 115-20, 146, 214-16
  - change of, 113-14
  - conduct, and, 49, 113-14
  - development of, 115, 214-16
  - expectations, and, 117-18
  - implicit, 50-51
  - meaning of, 116
  - standards, and, 179-81, 183-86
- Operational goals, 271-72
- Organizational constraints, 114-15
- Organizational goals, 265-66
- Organizational practices, 352-53
- Organized groups, frustration studies, 151-52
- Overloads, class, 409
- Panic behavior, 107
- Participation, 212
- Participative methods, 224
- Passivity, 165, 346
- Patterns of activities, 4-5
- Peer relationships, 118, 152-53
- Perceived behavior, 17-19
- Perception, of norms, 113-14
  - of rules, 118-19
- Perceptual differences, 413-14
- Phases of change process, 279-82
- Playground, organization, 252
  - problems of, 254
- Policies of school, 115-20
- Popular individuals, 113-14
- Practice teaching, 132
- Preconceptions, children of school, 80-81
- Preservice teaching, 132
- Pressuring tactics, 35



- Prestige individuals, 113-14
- Problem analysis, 4, 44-46
- Problem children, 18-19, 82-85, 91-96
- Problem formulation, 231-35
- Problem identification, 45
- Problem individuals, 91-96
- Problem situations, 23
- Problems, environmental, 254
  - routine, 250-52
- Problem solving, 222-25
  - agreements in, 243-45
  - conflict, and, 376-81
  - effective use of, 228
  - identifying the problem, 236-37
  - introduction of, 235-36
  - meeting needs, 225-26
  - nature of, 227-31
  - phases of, 231-33
  - planning operations, 257-58
  - processes, 231-33, 244-45
  - seating in, 236-37
  - teacher's role in, 229-30
  - types of, 228-39
- Procedural problems, 251-52
- Punishment, 336, 349-50
- Punitive practice, 33 103-105
- Questioning, methods of, 203-204
- Reactions, teacher, 158-59
- Reaction story, 152-54, 371-72
- Reality practice, 133-35
- Rebel class, 94-95
- Rebellion, student, 12
- Reeducation, 8-9
- Regulations, school, 211-12
- Rejection, of individuals, 51-52
- Resistance, 12-14, 56-58, 403
  - arousal of, 197
  - collective, 187-88
  - cycles of, 195
  - to change, 108-109
- Restoring morale, 5
- Routine activities, 251
- Rules of school, 22-23, 115-20
- Rumors, 335
- Satisfaction, 139-40
  - decision making, and, 218-19
  - effects, of, 219
- facilitation of, 356
- goal achievement, and, 274
- maintenance of, 151-52
- work, 197
- Scapegoat, 52
- Scapegoating, 105, 195, 224, 423
- School norms, 179-81
- School organization, 114-15, 180
- School rules, 118-19, 189, 211-12
- Self-discipline, 26, 28
- Self-esteem, 183, 196, 407
- Shared perceptions, 55
- Situation stress, 330-31
- Size, of groups, 145
  - school, 180
- Skill, development of, 318-20
  - teacher, 7-8
- Small-group research, 78
- Social control, 401
- Social cooperation, 64-65
- Social-psychological research, 14
- Social relations, problem of, 23
- Sociometric structure, 406-407
- Solidarity, 138, 155, 173
- Spatial arrangements, 86
- Stabilization, 4, 73
- Standards, group, 113, 177-79
  - adherence to, 188-89, 211-12
  - boundary conditions, 191, 207-208
  - defining the problem, 207
  - discussion, and, 214-16
  - engineered, 186-88
  - establishing, 193-97
  - integration, and, 200
  - norms, and, 214-16
  - steps of establishing, 189-93
  - teacher stereotype, 198
- Status, anxiety, 348-49
  - hierarchies, 48-49
  - low, 48-49
  - management, of, 12-16
  - structuring, 102
- Stereotyped responses, 187
- Stereotype of teachers, 198
- Stress, 324-30
  - adjustment to, 330-31
  - behavioral response to, 333
  - cohesive groups, in, 342
  - effects of, 330-32
  - group response to, 337-38

- individual reactions to, 330-31
- precipitation of, 337-38
- teacher response to, 338-39
- Structural hierarchy, 130, 145-46
- Structural rigidity, 417
- Structure, group, 145, 155-56
- Student government, approach to discipline, 29-30
- Student rebellion, 12-16
- Subgroup rivalry, 145
- Submissive individuals, 87-88
- Subservient patterns, 345-46
- Substitutes, planning for, 416-17
- Task motivation, 274
- Teacher education, changed, conditions, in, 417-20
- Teacher-pupil relations, 141-42
- Teacher-training programs, 31, 418-20
- Teaching practice, restrictive, 173-74
- Teaching transactions, 10-11
- Team teaching, 61-62, 121
- Test anxiety, 327
- Theoretical framework, 4-5, 31-34, 39-40
- Time schedules, 121-22, 230-31
- Traditional procedures, 187-88
- Traditional views, of management, 35
- Training procedures, 314-20
- action outcomes, 320
- balance in, 318
- need for alterations, 418-19
- process of, 315
- stages in, 316
- viewpoints, 318
- Unity, 99, 137, 323
  - effects of force upon, 358-59
  - lack of, 48-49
  - leadership style, and, 323
  - methods of developing, 147-53
  - restoration of, 153-55
- Validation, of ideas, 55
- Vandalism, 52
- Variables, basic group, 5
  - cohesiveness, of, 143
  - group properties, and, 97-98
  - in school situation, 32-33
- Variations, in behavior, 59-62
- Verbal interaction, 144
- Voting, 230
- Work, goals of, 182-83
  - procedures, nonadherences to, 49-51
  - relationships, 257-58
  - stoppage of, 56-58, 257
  - unsatisfactory conditions of, 411-12